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ABSTRACT

This study developed a descriptive profile of female presidents of selected four-year independent colleges by examining their career paths, mentor relationships, professional development and background, and institutional characteristics, as well as any hindrances that had impacted their ascent to the presidency. A 49-item questionnaire mailed to 129 female college presidents listed in the American Council on Education Women in Higher Education database elicited 91 responses. The study found that: (1) fewer than 20 percent of respondents had followed the traditional career path of faculty member, department head/division chair, and chief academic officer to the college presidency; (2) being in an all-female college positively influenced the advancement of female college presidents; (3) more mentoring opportunities are available to aspiring female college presidents; (4) national professional education programs contribute to career advancement; (5) female presidents did not strategically plan early in their careers to seek the college presidency; (6) female college presidents are more likely to be contacted by search firms prior to their appointments to the presidency; and (7) some aspiring female college presidents continue to experience challenges in coping with personal and institutional hindrances. Two appendixes include the questionnaire and related materials. (Contains about 117 references.) (RH)

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FEMALE PRESIDENTS OF SELECTED INDEPENDENT COLLEGES: CAREER PATHS, PROFILES, AND EXPERIENCES

by

TERRI MOORE BROWN

A dissertation submitted to the
Graduate Faculty of
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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my husband, David C. Brown, Jr., my parents, Eddie and Cora Moore, my sister, Karen Moore, in-laws, extended family members, and friends. Thank you for your sacrifices, support, and love.

ABSTRACT

BROWN, TERRI MOORE. Female Presidents of Selected Independent Colleges: Career Paths, Profiles, and Experiences. (Under the direction of George B. Vaughan.)

The purpose of this study was to develop a descriptive profile of female presidents of selected four-year independent colleges by examining their career paths, mentorship, professional development, hindrances impacting ascent to the presidency, and professional backgrounds. The profile of female presidents of selected independent colleges was also compared to the profile of female presidents of community colleges from a previous study with regard to their career paths, degrees held, age, marital status, professional development, and prior presidencies.

A 49-item questionnaire was used to collect the data. The subjects of the study were female college presidents of selected four-year independent colleges derived from the American Council on Education (ACE) Office of Women in Higher Education's database.

The study reported that fewer than 20% of the 91 female college presidents of selected independent colleges followed the traditional career path of faculty member, department head/division chair, and chief academic officer to the college presidency. Mentorship is more available to aspiring female college presidents compared to past decades. Respondents indicated that national professional development programs were more helpful to aspiring female college presidents in their career development. Female college presidents made it a goal to pursue the college presidency only as they moved up

the administrative career ladder or because it was the next step on the administrative ladder. Female college presidents were more likely to be contacted by search firms and selection committees prior to their appointments to the college presidency. Aspiring female college presidents experienced challenges in coping with personal and institutional hindrances during their ascension to the college presidency. In comparing results to a previous study, female presidents of both independent and community colleges tended not to follow traditional pathways to the presidency.

BIOGRAPHY

Terri Moore Brown, daughter of Eddie Conville and Cora Kenlaw Moore, was born in Berlin, Germany. Ms. Brown, wife of David C. Brown, Jr., received her elementary and secondary education from Fort Bragg and Cumberland County public school systems, and she graduated from Seventy First High School in 1981.

In 1985, Ms. Brown received her Bachelor of Arts degree with a double major in Social Work and Sociology and a minor in Business Administration from Methodist College in Fayetteville, North Carolina. Following graduation from Methodist College, Ms. Brown was employed in Fayetteville, NC, at HSA Cumberland Hospital as a child care counselor, and Cumberland County Board of Education as a school social worker.

Ms. Brown continued her education by enrolling at East Carolina University (ECU), Greenville, North Carolina. She received her Master's of Social Work in 1988. After graduating from ECU, Ms. Brown was employed as a child protective service social worker by the Cumberland County Department of Social Services and, later, by Wake County Department of Social Services. In 1991, Ms. Brown accepted a position with Methodist College where she served as Associate Professor of Social Work; Department Head for the Sociology, Social Work, and Criminal Justice Department; and Social Work Program Director. In 1999, Ms. Brown accepted a position as Associate Professor of Social Work and Coordinator of Field Instruction at Campbell University. She has also worked as a part-time psychotherapist, with the Behavioral Medicine Center in Fayetteville, NC, and a part-time instructor at Fayetteville State University. Ms. Brown is

completing the doctoral program in Adult Education and Community College at North Carolina State University in Raleigh, NC.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION AND STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Over the years, a significant gap has existed between the number of male college presidents and the number of female college presidents (Ross & Green, 1998). However, during the past two decades, women have been making progress in attaining presidential positions in American colleges and universities, as evidenced by the nearly 40% increase in the number of female presidents. In 1975, there were 148 female college presidents. By 1980, there were 219 women serving as college presidents; by 1989, the number had increased to 328. In 1992, the total number of female college presidents was 348 (Touchton, Shavlik, & Davis, 1993); by 1995, there were 379 (Ross & Green, 1998). Thus, higher education institutions continue to face challenges in increasing the overall number of female college presidents.

To increase and maintain women in college presidential positions, more research is needed that focuses on the career patterns, experiences, and perceptions of female college presidents. Such information can provide insight into female presidents' personal characteristics, career preparation, professional development activities, and support systems. Profiling female college presidents can identify (a) trends in the characteristics of female presidents being appointed to independent colleges and (b) possible variables contributing to women's appointment to presidential positions at independent colleges. Furthermore, by understanding the background of female college presidents, women who

aspire appointment to the college presidency can develop their own strategies for attaining this goal.

Research Problem

According to Spilerman (1977), identifying sequences of career pathways that are common to part of a labor force by examining persons' career histories is possible. In recent years, a body of research has emerged on the career paths and profiles of female college presidents. These studies focus on how women have advanced in administrative positions in higher education. Sagaria (1993) reported that researchers have taken a demographic approach in examining the advancement of women in higher education by analyzing the trends in the number of women in higher education institutions, the types of higher education institutions employing women, and the types of positions women hold. Other researchers have taken a policy-oriented perspective by focusing on how selected higher education institutions have successfully or unsuccessfully increased the representation of women in chief administrative positions. Others have studied the relationships between individual characteristics, such as gender, race, and age, on administrative and managerial career advancement. An analysis of these studies revealed that the career paths of administrators in higher education may vary by institution type, gender, and race (Bond, 1983).

Studies of women's administrative career paths in higher education report the kinds and numbers of administrative positions women hold and the trends in the hiring of women. A comprehensive review of the literature revealed that few studies have focused on the profile of female college presidents of only independent colleges. Previous studies

of female college presidents and administrators have focused on women's career pathways from all categories of institutions, including four-year public, four-year independent, two-year public, and two-year independent (Ironside, 1981; Touchton et al., 1993). Other studies focused on career pathways of both female and male college presidents and administrators from all categories of institutions (Ross & Green, 1998; Warner, Brazzel, Allen, Bostick, & Marin, 1988; Wessel & Keim, 1994). Several studies focused on the career paths of only female community college presidents and administrators (Buddemeier, 1998; Capozzoli, 1989; Faulconer, 1995; Moore, 1983). From existing studies of female presidents of independent colleges, one cannot assume that the career paths, profiles, and experiences of female college presidents from other categorical institutions such as four-year public institutions or community colleges will be the same, similar, or different from current college presidents of four-year independent colleges.

There are 1,636 four-year independent colleges in the United States (Synder, Hoffman, & Geddes, 1997), and, according to the American Council on Education database (1999), there are 164 women serving as presidents of four-year independent colleges. To meet the challenges of increasing the number of female presidents of independent institutions, a greater understanding of the career patterns of female college presidents is needed. More in-depth knowledge is needed on how preparation for the presidency, mentorship, professional development, family relationships, and barriers support or undermine the chances of women leading independent higher education institutions. This study raises the understanding of how education preparation,

administrative experience, personal life, and barriers to the presidency affect the appointments of women to college presidencies of independent colleges.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to develop a descriptive profile of female presidents of selected four-year independent colleges. The study's objective was to provide a review of women's career paths and experiences that led them to the college presidency. This study replicated portions of Buddemeier's (1998) study of the career path experiences and perceptions of female community college presidents. Buddemeier's (1998) study provided a descriptive profile of female college presidents' educational and personal backgrounds, professional experiences, career paths, and mentoring relationships. This study is aimed at informing aspiring women about the professional, educational, and social opportunities that will prepare them for the college presidency. The data from this study can contribute to the discourse on female college presidents and serve as a source for future research.

Need for and Significance of the Study

The findings from this study may be used to inform women aspiring to become college presidents of independent institutions about ways to prepare for this leadership role. The study identified events that helped women ascend to the college presidency and identified barriers that hindered women's ascension to the college presidency. Although many of the survey questions were derived from an instrument used in a previous study (Buddemeier, 1998), some questions from Buddemeier's study did not target female

presidents of independent colleges. Additionally, data from the Buddemeier study cannot be generalized to female presidents of independent colleges.

Because a limited number of women are serving as presidents of independent colleges, the researcher hopes that leaders of higher education institutions will use this study's findings to facilitate planning of institutional programs that are more effective in preparing women in academia to move into presidential positions. Furthermore, the researcher hopes that women who are former, current, or aspiring presidents will join with other constituents to use this and other studies' results to develop programs that both encourage more women to seek the college presidency and better prepare women for this role. This study's results contribute to the literature on female independent college presidents' career paths and may serve as a guide for future research.

Definition of Terms

College president: Individual serving as a chancellor or a chief executive officer of a higher education institution (Touchton et al., 1993).

Mentorship: A process of experienced persons guiding and influencing the career development of persons with less experience (Daloz, 1986).

Career path: A series of job positions held that involve governance and management and that over time have increasing responsibility, reward, and recognition. The structure of career paths entails socialization, professional development, career planning, and promotion (Twombly, 1990).

Independent colleges: Colleges that are dependent on tuition revenues, public support, and fundraising and do not rely almost entirely on state appropriations (Geiger, 1986; Ingram & Associates, 1993).

Baccalaureate colleges: Undergraduate liberal arts degree-granting institutions. These institutions are from the combined Carnegie groups of Liberal Arts Colleges I and II. Liberal Arts I colleges award 40% or more of their baccalaureate degrees in liberal arts, whereas Liberal Arts II colleges award less than 40% of their baccalaureate degrees in liberal arts (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1994).

Limitations of the Study

Because the researcher was unable to obtain the raw data from Buddemeier's (1998) study of community college presidents, only limited statistical analyses could be made in comparing results of the present study to Buddemeier's (1998) study. Validity is also an issue when comparing results to only one study of community college presidents. The sample in this dissertation was homogeneous, therefore results cannot be generalized to other racial or ethnic groups.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter provides an overview of major theories and constructs that form the conceptual framework for the study. A theoretical, methodological, and integrative perspective is used in that theories, definitions, methods, and summaries of past research are presented (Creswell, 1994). The major constructs of this study are the (a) conceptual framework, (b) current status of female college presidents, (c) historical background of female college presidents, (d) career paths of female college presidents, (e) mentorship, (f) challenges encountered by female college presidents, (g) professional development and preparation for the presidency, and (h) future of female college presidents of four-year independent colleges. The research questions are presented and discussed according to the areas they addressed.

Conceptual Framework

Colleges and universities are considered professional organizations with unique characteristics whose major goals are teaching, research, and service. Professionals or faculty members execute each of these goals. Administrators' responsibilities are secondary because administrators represent the support functions and activities of colleges and universities (Twombly, 1986a).

Career paths in higher education consist of two major labor market theories, an internal labor market and an external labor market. Labor markets defined in their broadest meaning are "arenas in which workers exchange their labor power in return for

wages, status, and other job rewards. . . . These arenas are comprised of institutions and practices that govern the purchase, sale, and pricing of labor services " (Twombly, 1986b, p. 11). Therefore, labor markets can be described as arenas in which wages, jobs, and rewards are allocated in accordance with institutional rules, and movement among jobs is comparably structured (Twombly, 1986b).

Althauser and Kallenberg (1981) provided a conceptual framework for understanding internal labor markets.

> Internal labor markets should include any cluster of jobs, regardless of occupational titles or employing organizations that have three basic structural features: (1) a job ladder, with (2) entry only at the bottom, and (3) movement up this ladder which is associated with a progressive development of knowledge or skill. (p. 130)

There are two types of internal labor markets, firm internal and occupational internal. Firm internal labor markets (FILMS) are "established by and confined to a single employer, organization or corporation, though not embracing all jobs in a firm" (Twombly, 1986b, p. 14). FILMS are further segmented into upper-tier or managerial and lower-tier or blue-collar markets (Twombly, 1986b). Occupational internal labor markets (OILMS) comprise individuals of one or several closely related occupations and are not confined to a single institution. (Twombly, 1986b). Universities and colleges are considered to be OILMS, or a series of OILMS, made up of closely related occupations. OILMS require a high degree of theoretical knowledge before entry, and the entrant may be judged prior to entry (Twombly, 1986b). Several studies have used occupational labor

market theory as a framework for identifying and describing administrative career paths in higher education institutions (Althauser & Kallenberg, 1981; Johnsrud & Sagaria, 1989; Twombly, 1986).

Colleges and universities are OILMS because they have institutionalized policies that affect career paths (Johnsrud & Sagaria, 1989). Additional characteristics of OILMS are informal training of new by old, little or no competition from external markets, little competition from within, and considerable job security (Althauser & Kallenberg, 1981). As stated in Twombly's (1986b) study, two-year colleges are assumed to be more like each other than they are to any other type of organization.

Employees obtain entry into internal labor markets through entry ports that serve as the contact points between the internal and external markets (Twombly, 1986b). Entry through restricted entry positions serves to protect employees from competition with individuals from external markets for upper-level administrative positions. Oftentimes, all employees must begin in certain low-level positions (Twombly, 1986b).

Rosenblum and Rosenblum (1990) defined internal labor markets in academia as those persons in full-time tenured or tenure-track positions. These positions comprise the population from which promotions to or within the professional rank can take place in the normal course of administrative events. In contrast, external labor markets consist of non-tenure track positions and adjunct faculties. Rosenblum and Rosenblum also describe external labor markets in academia as those positions usually involving off-hour and off-campus teaching, summer school, and lower-level course instruction.

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Members of the external labor market face constant competitive pressure from others who are similarly situated, and their terms of employment are likely limited. (Rosenblum & Rosenblum, 1990.) However, even within internal labor markets at an institution, divisions may exist as in the case of dual markets. Dual labor markets in higher education are positions that may lead to tenure and those that do not.

The dual labor market theory is evident in higher education because of the existence of tenure- and non-tenure track positions. Economists, beginning in the early 1960s, used this theory to explain the inability of some social groups to exit from occupational levels associated with low socioeconomic stature. Non-tenure track positions in comparison to tenure-track positions show certain secondary labor market characteristics. These characteristics are that non-tenure track positions (a) provide unstable employment; (b) are more subject to harsh and arbitrary treatment; (c) have a predominance of poor working conditions, such as large course loads, less time for research, and so forth; (d) essentially eliminate advancement; and (e) make it more difficult for a faculty member to find primary labor market employment. Persons in the internal labor markets may have difficulty making transitions between two-year and four-year institutions (Roemer & Schnitz, 1978).

There is apparently little mobility from four-year college positions to two-year positions at high levels in the organizational hierarchy, which might be explained by the view that individuals do not want to lower their own prestige value. This perception is especially true when the individual anticipates further moves. The labor market for top administrative positions in the two-year college is not very open. Preference is given to

persons within postsecondary education and usually from within two-year colleges (Twombly, 1986a).

Job ladders provide upward mobility for administrative aspirants. Job ladders are often used because they offer employment security to employees and they motivate individuals to become committed to the organization. Usually in internal labor markets, employees can enter a market or job ladder only through a low-level, fixed entry position, and, once they are in the market, outside persons are not usually a source of competition for jobs. In contrast, when positions are open to individuals from external markets, then the advantages of internal labor markets for employees are weakened (Twombly, 1986a).

Career lines or sequences of positions are formed in organizations by which individuals are introduced to the demands of the next higher position in the sequence before they actually move into the position. Organizations can ensure a pool of trained individuals able to assume leadership roles is available and that this task of position sequencing is done effectively (Twombly, 1986b).

DauffenBach (1980) argued that careers may be viewed as jobs that (a) require lengthy training, (b) are specific and distinct, (c) are specialized and well defined, (d) have substantial prestige, and (e) provide compensation well above the norm. DauffenBach further stated that careers may be described as a sequence of hierarchically related job positions. Individuals would enter career lines at the bottom of their respective career ladders and advance as they gained skills, abilities, and responsibilities.

Career ladders and the Markov model consist of a sequence of steps up the ladder. The Markov model contends that movement of elements among different states in a

system over time is a probability process. The primary characteristics are a set of exhaustive and non-overlapping states for elements in the process and probabilities of movement among states during any time interval. This model closely aligns with the career line theory (Mahoney & Milkovich, 1972).

Age and gender have influenced women's access to positions in the internal labor market. Rosenblum and Rosenblum (1990) argued that academia has refused to modify career ladders in the internal labor market to deal with maternal responsibility. Rosenblum and Rosenblum (1990) stated:

> The university takes its favored few and processes them through the stages of the academic hierarchy. Exceptions are made, but those exceptions rarely reflect the special conditions of women's lives. The system can allow for any number of variations, such as military service, research leave, "community service," alcoholism, divorce, sexual promiscuity, serious physical or mental illness, but never marriage or motherhood; not maternity leave, no schedules adjusted to childbearing needs, as so on. The "solution" for such "female trouble" is part-time, temporary status. (p. 155)

Careers can be examined from a variety of perspectives among the social science disciplines. Occupational systems theory (OST) is a synthesis of various theoretical perspectives among the social science disciplines. Two of those disciplines are psychology and sociology (DauffenBach, 1980). DauffenBach (1980) indicated that, from the psychological perspective, the discussion of careers focuses on the personalities, attitudes, aptitudes, interests, and perceptions of employed individuals. Early work in

psychology focused on occupational or vocational choice theories that emphasized the choice of occupation as being a relatively distinct event in life (DauffenBach, 1980). The psychological approach is based on the premise that "individuals are endowed with differing patterns of aptitudes and as a consequence, the potential for success of an individual in a given job depends on the 'fit' of the individual's traits with the requirements of the job" (DauffenBach, 1980, p. 5).

Vocational development theory (VDT) emphasizes the life stages through which individuals pass (DauffenBach, 1980). Zaccaria (1970) summarized VDT as follows: "Basically, the individual does not choose an occupation, but rather makes a series of occupational or occupationally related choices at different life stages which, when taken cumulatively, result in vocational development rather than occupational choice, per se" (p. 37).

According to DauffenBach (1980), vocational development can be viewed as a lifelong process of decision making. He cited several psychological life stages through which persons pass, each stage identified with approximate age ranges. Those stages are (a) growth stage (0-14 years), (b) exploratory stage (15-25 years), (c) establishment stage (26-45 years), (d) maintenance stage (46-65 years), and (e) decline stage (66 years-death). DauffenBach (1980) cited another classification of psychological life stages related to making decisions about career choice that were called periods: (a) preparatory work period, (b) initial work period, (c) trial work period, (d) stable work period, and (e) retirement period.

The sociological approach to vocational or occupational choice theories is a reflection of the social stratification process. The various types of careers in the job market reflect the social stratification process. From a sociological perspective, there is a hierarchical structuring of jobs, with the various levels representing different skill content. Jobs at each step build on the worker's skills, thereby enhancing the probability of the worker being promoted to the next level (DauffenBach, 1980).

Sociologists have considered the effect of organizational structure on vocational choices. Informal and formal mechanisms within labor markets (internal, external, and occupational) may prevent individuals from entering such markets, or restrict their movements within them (Warner & DeFleur, 1993). One of the main schools of thought relating to social stratification is segmented labor market theory (SLM). SLM theorists assert that the job market is divided into good and bad jobs, and women and minorities are relatively confined to the bad jobs of the secondary sector. According to SLM theorists, secondary jobs are characterized as having job instability, lack of training opportunities, low capital/labor ratios, institutionalized discrimination, and limited mobility.

Promotion is but one way of upward career mobility in colleges and universities. When the responsibilities of an administrative position are increased, this change is characterized as mobility by the process of evolving jobs. Career mobility in academic organizations may be accomplished by a change in position titles to reflect excellent work. The job may remain essentially the same and be occupied by the same individual, but the position title may reflect a promotion. Also, a middle manager may leave one

institution for a higher position at another institution. And, finally, upward mobility may actually be accomplished through demotion. Individuals might accept a lower position at a higher status institution (Twombly, 1986a).

Examination of career paths reveals that movement in career paths may be random. Some movements in career paths may be totally unrelated, whereas other movements may result from considerable reinvestment in education and training (DauffenBach, 1980). As mentioned earlier, labor markets may prevent individuals from entering such markets, or restrict their movements within them (Warner & DeFleur, 1993). According to Kanter (1993), women often choose occupations that are part of short career ladders with limited opportunities for progression. Warner and DeFleur (1993) described administrative positions in higher education as having relatively strict career paths that focus on selective administrative responsibilities. These positions are usually in academic affairs, personnel services, student affairs, alumni services, or business. Shakeshaft (1987) reported that women often choose administrative career pathways that are clustered in nonacademic areas that are more likely to have limited opportunities for promotion. According to Shakeshaft (1987), academic affairs seems to have the most streamlined path to chief administrative positions in higher education, and women are less likely found in these positions.

Two very important characteristics of an internal labor market are job ladders, or career lines, and mobility up the ladder. Career lines were strategic links between the organization and the socioeconomic achievements of individuals. Organizational leaders must understand how careers are structured. These leaders must know which positions

have become institutionalized as the training required for top leadership positions so that the organization can effectively adapt through the allocation of human resources (Twombly, 1986b).

Twombly (1986b) found that presidents were most likely to come directly from top executive or chief academic officer positions. Also, Twombly noted that two-year college presidents were not nearly as likely to have held other positions, such as line officer, administrative dean or director, faculty, or staff. Career lines consist mainly of administrative positions leading to the presidency, whereas line officer positions other than chief academic officer may be ceiling positions. And, finally, the study showed that rarely do presidents move directly from faculty positions to the presidency. However, faculty positions were the entry positions for many (Twombly, 1986b).

Kerr (1984) described colleges and universities as an occupational labor market because there is uniformity among administrative hiring and promotion practices. In most higher education institutions, faculty-based search committees rather than administrators are responsible for the recruitment, selection, and promotion of faculty members. Tenure protects faculty members from external and internal competition. In addition, faculty members have the same responsibilities (i.e., teaching, research, and service) throughout their careers despite promotion on the career ladder from assistant to associate to full professor.

In contrast, the recruitment, selection, and promotion of administrative officers in higher education resemble the hiring process of most corporate environments. Promotions are the primary means for administrative officers to develop skills and build their careers.

Applying occupational labor market theory to administrative career patterns, Sagaria's (1993) study of career patterns in higher education yielded divergent career paths within administrative specialty areas. The career patterns within and among higher education institutions varied for administrative officers in academic affairs, student affairs, and business affairs. Moore (1984) asserted career paths among administrators in academia are often uneven, nonstandard, and incomparable. In addition, status, opportunity, and reward are not always linked effectively.

Warner and DeFleur (1993) contended persons must have access to strong networks, mentoring, and sponsorship to obtain good positions in occupational labor markets. These connections play significant roles in helping women advance in higher education institutions. Networking provides opportunities to meet influential persons who can affect careers positively. Mentors provide support and feedback on performance, and sponsors give career advice and nominate proteges for important positions (Warner & DeFleur, 1993) (Figure 1).

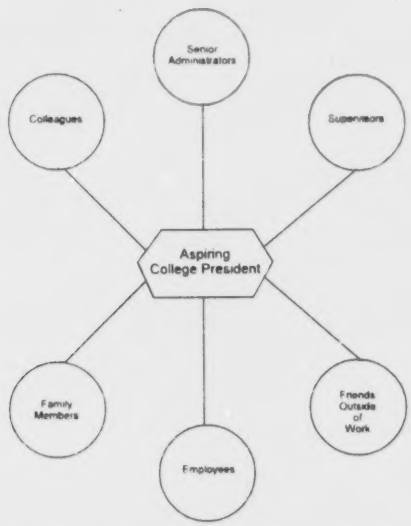

Figure 1. Mentor relationship constellation (Warner & DeFleur, 1993).

Several studies have suggested an academic hierarchical pattern of promotion to the college presidency. The majority of college presidents entered academia as faculty members, followed by administrative positions as department head, division chair, dean, and vice president (Cohen & March, 1974; Ross & Green, 1998; Vaughan, 1986; Wessel & Keim, 1994). From their study of college presidents' career paths, Cohen and March (1974) asserted that a five-rung hierarchical career path leads to the college presidency: faculty member, department chair, dean, provost, and, finally, president (Figure 2).

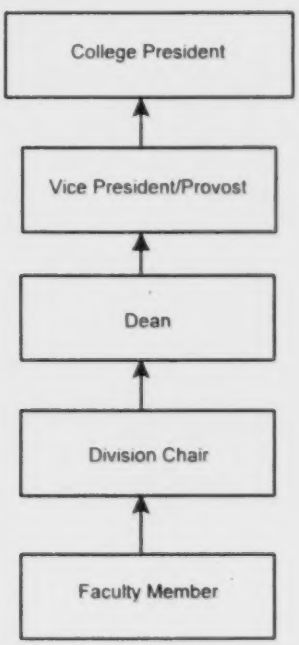

Figure 2. Common hierarchical pattern of promotion to the college presidency (Cohen & March, 1974).

Salimbene (1982) found that few college presidents actually follow the career path suggested by Cohen and March (1974). Salimbene found 15 variations in the career paths of college presidents. Duryea (1973) reported that "two mainstreams flowed to and from the offices of the president: One an academic route to deans and thence to departmental chairmen; the other a managerial hierarchy" (p. 133).

In Wessel and Keim's (1994) study of career patterns of 270 private four-year college and university presidents, two career paths leading to the college presidency emerged. The first path was the academic career pattern, defined as presidents beginning their careers as faculty members, followed by department chair, dean of a college, academic vice president, and then president. An administrative career pattern was the second career path, which was defined as presidents possessing minimal or no faculty experience but extensive administrative experience. Individuals taking the administrative career pattern route to the college presidency began their careers in entry- or mid-level positions, moved into senior administrative staff positions, and then assumed the presidency. The study revealed that 73.3% of the presidents followed the academic career pattern, whereas 26.7% followed the administrative career pattern. Figure 3 depicts the conceptual framework.

The College Presidency

The president of a community college or a four-year college or university is responsible for success in the top position on campus. The president is expected to be both a leader and a manager and to maintain an effective relationship with the board.

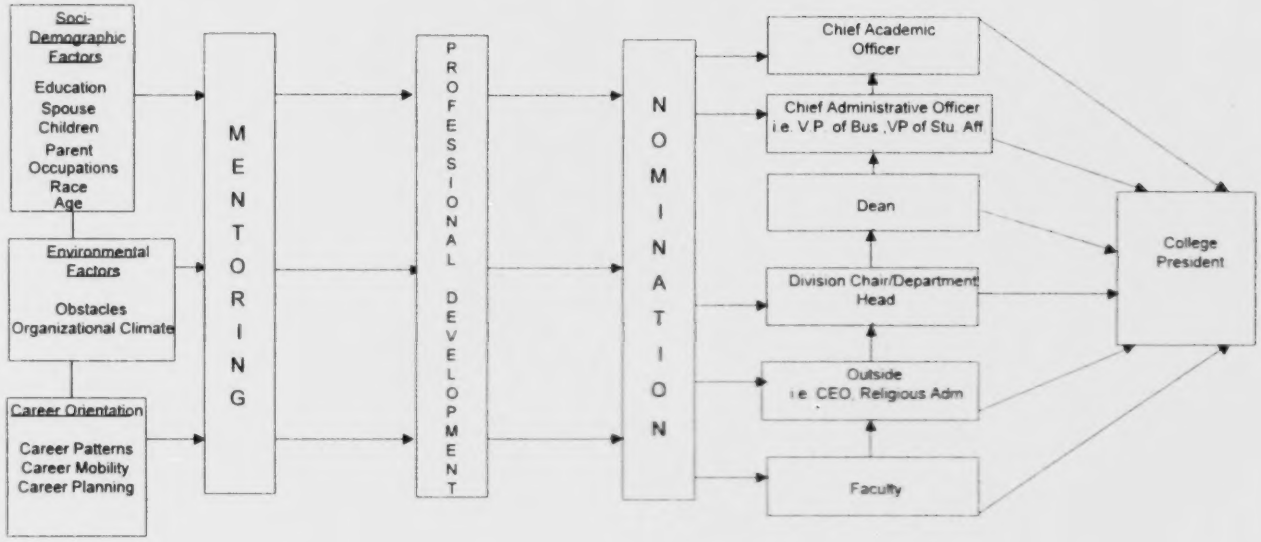

Figure 3. Conceptual framework of positions held immediately prior to the presidency (Cohen & March, 1974; DauffenBach, 1980; Touchton & Associates, 1993; Warner & DeFleur, 1993).

Effective leadership is essential for the president of higher education institutions. This leadership must start with establishing the college mission. The president and the board may share responsibility for developing the mission, but the president must serve as the primary communicator of the institution's mission to the board (Vaughan, 1986). According to research by Vaughan (1986), major components of leadership are being an educational leader, setting the campus environment, and being an effective external leader.

The educational leader's role is essential to a successful presidency. This role includes directly leading the curriculum, teaching, and learning at the institution. Providing access to learning and obtaining external support for faculty and staff to perform their duties effectively are also considered important. Education leadership requires the president to manage the institution's educational environment, not just the curriculum, teaching and learning process (Vaughan, 1986).

Vaughan's research noted that presidents must set the campus environment or mood. The successful president is responsible for ensuring that all members of the campus produce a climate that enables the institution to provide a quality education. "Setting the thrust," "leadership by example" and "setting the climate" describe the president's role in providing the leadership necessary for creating and maintaining the campus environment (Vaughan, 1986).

The president must not only provide leadership internally to the institution but externally as well. Business leaders, state legislators, special interest groups, other educational institutions, local politicians, and other area groups are some groups with

whom the president must be able to work effectively. Interaction with the institution's external environment provides the president the opportunity to articulate the institution's mission and to obtain support from these groups (Vaughan, 1986).

The responsibility for managing an institution lies with the president. According to Vaughan, institutional management requires a considerable amount of time for two reasons. First, the governing board expects the institution to be well managed, and poor management leads to trouble for the president. Second, the president feels a sense of accomplishment when an institution is well managed and the results are visible. The president as a manager ensures that fair policies and procedures exist and are administered fairly. The president also ensures that all institutional components, such as food service, buildings and grounds, instruction, and student services, are aligned to the institution's mission (Vaughan, 1989).

Almost all educational institutions, whether public or private, have governing boards. The board's role is to govern institutions, not manage them. Management of the institution is the president's responsibility, as stated previously. This board of regents, directors, or trustees usually hires the president and evaluates his or her job performance. The president of higher educational institutions must work closely with and maintain a relationship with the board. These two working together for the ultimate advancement of the college or university can be a very successful combination (Flawn, 1990).

The college presidency is a complex and demanding position, despite the size, location, or type of college or university presidential appointment (Vaughan, 1989). A significant number of theoreticians and practitioners provide their perceptions of the

qualities of effective college presidents. There is no single description of an ideal college president (Green, 1986). It is difficult to identify the "right" college president to provide leadership for a college or university because the "right" qualifications and attributes of a college president are frequently situational (Kaplowitz, 1986).

Even though numerous lists of skills and attributes of college presidents exist, these skills and attributes can be categorized in three groups: interpersonal abilities, personal attributes, and technical management skills (Kaplowitz, 1986). The following discussion examines findings and observations of selected attributes and skills of college presidents.

1. Stoke (1959) indicated that college presidents are expected to carry out their responsibilities with physical vigor and noted that presidents should be charming, personable, honest, sincere, formally educated, and scandal free.

2. Fisher (1984) indicated college presidents should use presidential power and should not be afraid to assert their presidential power over others. Fisher categorized power as coercive, reward-based, legitimate, expert, and charismatic, and he emphasized the importance of presidents knowing how, when, and with whom to use these power bases. Fisher contended that charismatic power promotes trust and confidence with a combination of distance, style, and self-confidence, and possessing this type of power is the primary key to effective leadership.

3. Bogg's (1988) study of community college presidents revealed presidents have common characteristics and qualifications. Some of those characteristics and qualifications are (a) administrative experience; (b) ability to move from one

geographical area to another; (c) doctorate degree; (d) strong publishing record; (e) ability to prepare, analyze, and manage budgets; (f) experience in dealing with personnel issues; and (g) active involvement in community service and professional organizations.

4. Fisher (1991) determined from his study of college and university presidents that presidents' personal attributes include their abilities to (a) demonstrate high level of self-confidence; (b) demonstrate positive thinking; (c) take risks; (d) strategize and think carefully about what they are going to say and do; and (e) possess control over their emotions, actions, and words.

5. Adams (1997) reported that college presidents should possess a strong sense of personal integrity and self-worth. Presidents should be genuinely concerned about students and other people. In addition, college presidents should have broad and deep personal and professional experiences. Furthermore, college presidents should be able to help develop and articulate a strong vision considered by various constituencies to be worthy of support.

6. Healy (1985) suggested that higher education institutions need presidents "who can think, dream, envision and imagine the future" (p. 22). He also described presidents as being spokespersons and symbols.

7. Mayhew (1979) described presidents as having the capabilities to make strong appointments and possessing knowledge and intuition about finances.

8. College presidents must be able to gain the confidence of their faculties and thoughtful laymen and must possess a gift of preserving a climate of intellectual inquiry

and quality. An effective college president's primary role is educational leadership (Dodds, 1962; Vaughan, 1989a).

9. Cohen and March (1974) concluded that the majority of presidents' time and energy are controlled by the desires of others, and college presidents must be able to address the concerns of a wide array of constituencies, including trustees, community leaders, students, alumni, and faculty.

Adams (1997) contended an effective college president must be willing to give back something to society and believe that his or her leadership can influence and motivate various groups and the college community toward some commonly held set of goals. Adams further asserted, despite effective skills, strong moral stature, competency and impressive degrees, the president must take on the "mind of a servant" to be successful.

Presidents must be very competent, smart, and able to analyze and attack various issues in a manner that demonstrates keen intellect (Adams, 1997). The college president must be prepared to deal with bright, highly trained, and highly focused individuals, because academia is made up of highly educated, highly trained, and highly opinionated persons.

Leadership

Women developing career paths leading to the college presidency should strive to obtain the necessary training and skills to become effective leaders of higher education institutions. Every higher education organization must have effective leadership to attain

its goals and objectives. The literature stresses the importance of leadership ability for all college presidents (Birnbaum, 1992; Fisher, 1991; Vaughan, 1989a).

Leadership is defined in many ways because the meaning of leadership means different things to different people. Studies of leadership are often conflicting and confusing (Fisher, 1991). Behavior, individual traits, influence over people, interaction patterns, and role relationship are but some of the numerous terms used to define leadership. A representative list of leadership definitions follows: (a) "The behavior of an individual when he is directing the activities of a group toward a shared goal" (Hemphill & Coons, 1957, p. 7); (b) "interpersonal influence, exercised in a situation, and directed through the communication process, toward the attainment of a specific goal or goals" (Tannenbaum, Weschler, & Massarik, 1961, p. 24); "the initiation and maintenance of structure in expectation and interaction" (Stogdill, 1974, p. 411); "the influential increment over and above mechanical compliance with the routine directives of the organization" (Katz & Kahn, 1978, p. 528); and the "influence processes affecting the interpretation of events for followers, the choice of objectives for the group or organization, the organization of work activities to accomplish the objectives, the motivation of followers to achieve the objectives, the maintenance of cooperative relationships and teamwork, and the enlistment of support and cooperation from people outside the group or organization" (Yukl, 1994).

According to Witmer (1995), leadership has personal prerequisites that are believed necessary for effective leadership. Even persons who do not entertain the thought that characteristics are guarantees for effective, successful leadership should

consider the necessary elements of leadership that should be developed (Witmer, 1995). Stogdill (1974) compiled a list of characteristics that aspiring leaders need to develop. Stogdill's findings and summary are considered to the most comprehensive list that female presidential aspirants should consider. Stogdill's functions of effective leadership are listed in Table 1.

Table 1

Functions of Effective Leadership

Goal Achievement	Group Maintenance
Technical skills	Social and interpersonal skills
Administrative skills	Social nearness, friendliness
Task motivation and application	Group supportiveness
Leadership achievement	Maintaining cohesive work group
Maintaining standards of performance	Facilitating coordination and teamwork
	Intellectual and communication skills

Note. Adapted from Stogdill (1974).

Chliwniak (1997) noted that leadership studies traditionally have been based on male norms. Desjardins (1989) contended that women adopt male standards of success to promote their ability to adapt to male-dominated hierarchical structures and systems. In a

study of college and university presidents, Birnbaum (1992) found no apparent relationships between gender and leadership. Dill (1984) and Van der Veer (1991) also described male and female leaders as being genderless. In contrast, Helgesen (1995) asserted that male and female leaders are different from their male counterparts because female leaders place more emphasis on developing relationships, sharing, and processing, whereas male leaders focus more on completing tasks, achieving goals, hoarding information, and winning. Chliwniak (1997) contended that women and men have a separate developmental pathway that reflects women placing higher value on personal and relational responsibility and men placing higher value on legalistic justice. Chliwniak (1997) concluded that men focus more on systems and rules, whereas women focus more on relations and atmosphere.

Current Status of Female Presidents of Independent Colleges

Touchton and colleagues' (1993) comprehensive study of female presidents of all higher education institutions in 1985 provided demographic data on female presidents serving at four-year independent colleges. Of the 120 female presidents serving at four-year independent colleges, 72% were between the ages of 40 and 60, 98% were white, 67% were single, 74% did not have children, 63% had received degrees from an all-female college, and 77% had doctorate degrees (Touchton et al., 1993).

Touchton and associates' (1993) study also revealed a pattern of heavy involvement in a variety of external professional activities among the female college presidents. Fifty-four percent engaged in scholarly research, 47% served as paid external consultants, 52% participated on accrediting teams, 39% directed major grants, and 14%

served as editors or associate editors of professional journals. All the female presidents of independent colleges in their study served on boards or as officers of professional, governmental, and community service organizations and corporations.

Sagaria and Johnsrud (1987) asserted that nomination and sponsorship increase women's chances of advancing into higher education administrative and chief executive officer positions and that a significant number of administrative academic appointments rely on nominations and recruitment. The 120 women independent college presidents studied by Touchton and colleagues (1993) provided a variety of overlapping responses of how they became candidates for their presidential positions. Sixty-two percent of the women surveyed reported they were nominated for their positions, 39% were encouraged by the college to apply for the position, 36% were contacted by the search committee chair, 21% served first as the interim president, and 8% reported being contacted by a search firm.

History of Female Presidents of Independent Colleges

The first independent college in the United States was Harvard College, established in 1636 (Goodchild & Wechlsley, 1989), followed by the establishment of William and Mary in 1693 and Yale in 1701 (Solomon, 1985). According to Synder and associates (1997), since 1949, the numbers of independent colleges and universities in America have increased. From 1949-1950, there were 983 independent colleges; 1,408 from 1979-1980; and 1,636 from 1995-1996.

As shown in Table 2, more women historically have served as presidents of four-year independent higher education institutions versus four-year public higher education

institutions (Aisenberg & Harrington, 1988; Edson, 1988; Touchton & Ingram, 1995; Twale, 1992). Twale (1992) contended that independent colleges have more flexible hierarchies, are more receptive to women candidates, and are more willing to consider competence over credentials as compared to their public counterparts.

Table 2

Number of Female Presidents of Four-Year Higher Education Institutions

	Type of Higher Education Institution	
Year	Independent	Public
1995	199	78
1984	134	32
1975	98	16

Note. Aisenburg & Harrington (1988); Edson (1988); Touchton & Ingram (1995).

According to Tisinger (1991), in public higher education institutions, politics play significant roles in the appointment of college presidents. Tisinger (1991) contended that women were not appointed to presidential positions because they were not provided the opportunities to access high-level state political decision makers. State politics have limited effect on the appointment of college presidents and on presidents serving at independent colleges. Presidents of independent colleges have limited contacts with their

state governors and legislatures, as opposed to public college presidents who must be involved with state politics (Bonvillian & Murphy, 1996; Dibiaggio, Sample, & Haaland, 1996). Dibiaggio and colleagues (1996) argued that presidents of independent institutions do not receive as much public exposure and scrutiny as public college presidents do.

> Flynn (1993), who interviewed 15 women presidents of public universities, stated: Some of the institutions that have the opportunity to recruit women as presidents have a great fear that if they do, the institution will not be taken seriously. The major concerns of public institutions are often community relations and fund raising, and it is more comfortable for the institution if the person who has influence over these areas is a man. (p.114)

Flynn (1993) cited several reasons why qualified women are not considered for presidential positions. Those reasons include (a) women do not have the appropriate fundraising skills, (b) the university community may not take a woman president seriously, and (c) the belief that women are unable to lead large institutions or competitive athletic programs.

Career Paths of Female College Presidents

The number of women positioned on the career ladder to move into the presidency is steadily increasing. Significant numbers of women in higher education have the skills and experience to assume the presidency, and those women are serving as deans or vice presidents or are in other senior administrative positions (Kaplan & Helly, 1984). Before the women acquired these senior administrative positions, many of them had to

complete four or more years of college and have significant experience in faculty roles (Warner & DeFleur, 1993).

Colleges and universities in the United States began admitting women toward the end of the 1800s, and, since then, women have gradually experienced increasing access to higher education. Over the years, women's access to higher education was channeled into specific types of higher education institutions and fields of study (Solomon, 1985). According to Moore and Sagaria (1993), today's colleges and universities are admitting women from all social strata and age groups. There are colleges that educate women exclusively, although the number of all-female colleges is diminishing. Almost 90% of all undergraduate female students matriculate at coeducational institutions (Moore & Sagaria, 1993).

The increase in the number of women pursuing advanced and terminal degrees could expand the pool of women qualifying for presidential positions. Ottinger and Sikula (1993) contended that education plays an integral role in helping women advance as employees in higher education. The majority of all female college presidents hold doctorate degrees (Ross & Green, 1998; Touchton et al., 1993). Since 1984, the number of women attending graduate school exceeds the number of men (Touchton et al., 1993). Between 1985 and 1995, the number of women attending graduate school full time increased by 64%, compared to 23% for men attending full time. Women are making significant gains in earning their doctorates (Table 3). Synder and colleagues (1997) projected that 20,700 women will earn doctorates between 2003 and 2004.

Table 3

Number of Women Earning Doctorates

Year	Number of Women
1994-1995	17,530
1980-1981	10,247
1970-1971	4,577
1959-1960	1,028
1879-1880	3

Note. Synder & colleagues (1997).

Findings from Ross and Green's (1998) study of female and male presidents of independent colleges revealed that presidents most often received their highest degrees in humanities and fine arts (27.6%), education (25.8%), religion (14.3), and social sciences (14.3%). Touchton and associates (1993) reported, of female presidents' highest degrees, 37% received their degree in education; 29% received their degree in humanities/fine arts, and 13% received their degree in social sciences.

As previously stated, the academic career pattern of ascension to the presidency is predicated on women advancing through the ranks of academia. In 1991, a significant proportion of women was found in the lower ranks of academia. Of these women, 15% were full professors, 28% were associate professors, 40% were assistant professors, and 46% were instructors or lecturers (Ottinger & Sikula, 1993). In fall 1993, the number of

full-time instructional faculty from all categories of public and private higher education institutions included 26,679 women versus 130,574 men at the professor rank; 36,190 women versus 84,506 men at the associate professor rank; and 54,337 women versus 74,822 men at the assistant professor rank (Synder et al., 1997). Ottinger and Sikula (1993) reported that female faculty members were less likely to be awarded tenure, as compared to their male counterparts. During 1991, 58% of full-time female faculty members were awarded tenure, compared to 75% of full-time male faculty members.

The number of female administrators of independent colleges is slightly higher than for the number of female administrators of public higher education institutions (Moore, 1984; Tinsley, 1985). Several observations have been made about women in higher education administration. Three of those observations are first, the higher the rank of administrative positions, the fewer the women in those positions. Second, the higher the prestige of administrative positions, the fewer the women in those positions. Third, women are usually promoted at a slower pace, and, although men are promoted less frequently than women are, men are promoted in greater leaps (Hetherington & Barcelo, 1985).

Ironside's (1983) study of female administrators in 25 North Carolina four-year independent and public higher education institutions revealed that not all administrative positions attained by women were through pathways in academia; however, these women had the academic preparation needed for their positions. Ironside (1983) noted that attainment of these administrative positions were the result of personal goals rather than precise academic preparation and career planning.

Tinsley (1985) described higher education as having a pyramidal structure where women are found clustered at the bottom of the pyramid. Tinsley (1985) believed that women are more likely to be appointed as assistants or associates than they are to be appointed as directors, deans, vice presidents, or presidents. Kaplan and Tinsley (1989) reported that female administrators are often found heading programs targeting women and minorities, or directing advising and resource centers. In senior administrative positions, women are often found serving as deans of programs that also target women, such as nursing, home economics, and social work programs. Few women are serving as deans of business, engineering, or technology (Tinsley, 1985).

Touchton and associates' (1993) study of female presidents at all higher education institutions in 1985 revealed that, of the 120 female presidents serving at four-year independent colleges prior to their current appointments to the presidency, 4% indicated serving as college presidents, 7% were executive/senior vice presidents, 2% were assistants to the president, 34% were academic vice presidents/deans, 3% were associate/assistant deans, 3% were department chairs, and 13% were faculty members. Ross and Green's (1998) comprehensive study of college presidents in 1995 revealed that, of the 379 female presidents serving at all sectors of community colleges, colleges, and universities prior to their current appointments to the presidency, 13.1% were serving as college presidents; 33.8% were academic vice presidents; 83.7% were vice presidents, deans, and associate deans; and 16.3% served in other areas.

Buddemeier's (1998) study of career paths of 162 women community college presidents indicated that 69.5% of these presidents were in their first presidency. The

study also revealed that these female presidents did not follow the traditional career pathway of faculty member, department head, division chair, dean, provost, and president. However, nearly half the respondents entered academia as faculty members and held administrative positions in academic affairs.

Astin (1977) argued that federal legislation prohibiting discrimination, such as the 1964 Civil Rights Act and the 1972 Amendments to the Education Act, are not always enough to help women advance in their careers because discriminatory practices continue, despite the existence of antidiscrimination laws. Astin discovered that women do not always have the necessary education or professional preparation to excel in their careers nor do they always have the same opportunities available to men.

Organizational Practices Affecting the Career Paths of Female College Presidents

Gibson, Ivancevich, and Donnelly (1991) defined organizations as "entities that enable society to pursue accomplishments that cannot be achieved by individuals acting alone" (p. 7). Hersey and Banchard (1993) described an organization as a social system comprising many interrelated subsystems. Waldo (1955) viewed organizations as "the structure of authoritative and habitual interactions in an administrative system" (p. 6).

Frederick Taylor, the father of scientific management, provided a holistic view of organizations and was also recognized for creating the use of objectives and standards in organizations (Vasu, Stewart, & Garson, 1990). Taylor (1911) asserted there were four principles of organizational theory that he referred to as scientific management. Those principles are (a) workers should be scientifically assigned and trained for positions for which they are mentally and physically suited, (b) job responsibilities should be analyzed

scientifically, (c) the supervisors should monitor closely the workers' performance to ensure that deviations from scientific methods of work are minimal, (d) supervisors and workers should take responsibilities for their own part in the overall production of goods and services.

Administrators rarely have the freedom to pick and appoint themselves to their positions. Rather, higher education institutions, in intricate ways, establish the positions and appoint persons to serve in those positions. Several methods, including policies and procedures, are used to create, decrease, increase, enrich, or impoverish the pool of candidates for administrative positions (Moore, 1984).

The majority of colleges and universities are made up of administrative units that serve as an organizational scheme for defining the primary activities and functions of the institution. Examples of such administrative units include academic affairs, student affairs, and the business office. Usually, administrative units are subject to centralized policies and procedures for hiring and promotion. Decisions to select or promote individuals are frequently made within the unit, but there may be times when those decisions require approval outside the administrative unit. Each administrative unit establishes its own informal system of contacts, sponsorship, and information relevant to matching individuals to particular job positions (Johnsrud & Sagaria, 1989).

The patterns of movement among administrators differ according to their administrative specialty (Johnsrud & Sagaria, 1989). Additionally, administrative positions in higher education are both shaped by and dependent on the institution in which they are found. The roles and responsibilities of a college president or dean are not

exactly like those of another because of the organizational context (Moore, 1984). Nonetheless, academic administration requires individuals with the appropriate academic credentials, skills, knowledge, and training (Johnsrud & Sagaria, 1989).

There are policies that have positive and negative effects on women. For example, affirmative action guidelines have increased the number of women being appointed to administrative positions. However, in the past, antinepotism policies frequently prevented spouses, who were usually female, from working on the same campus as their partners (Moore, 1984).

Data from the Leaders in Transition Project (Moore, 1984) revealed female administrators are not distributed evenly across all categories of colleges and universities, and women are not distributed evenly among all administrative positions. Female administrators are pocketed in private colleges and community colleges, even though many of these women attended public institutions. Women are also found at the bottom of the career ladder. The Leaders in Transition Project showed women are found primarily as registrars, librarians, and student affairs officers. The data also indicated 19% of women served as academic deans, and women headed units in only three fields, nursing, home economics, and continuing education (Moore, 1984).

Cohen, Broschak, and Haveman (1998) reported increasing proportions of women in an occupation or organization beget even more women in that particular occupation or organization. Kanter (1993) found women's representation in an occupation increases when women are already present in that occupation. According to Cohen and colleagues (1998), college administrative positions are frequently filled by women when previous

incumbents are women and higher proportions of women hold similar positions in the college. Having a woman college president promotes sex integration among college administrators. Cohen and others (1998) concluded:

> Having many women anywhere in employing organizations may not lead to more women in managerial jobs in the future. Instead, having many women at certain levels in management hierarchies may lead to more women at these and other selected levels in the future. (p. 713)

Higher percentages of women in an organization may result from past preferences for hiring women. When a job applicant's true qualifications for a position cannot be observed, gender can be used by decision makers as a proxy for employment costs and for motor skills, interpersonal skills, and investment in education (Cohen et al., 1998).

Because of their perceptions of men's and women's qualifications and productivity, some employers may reserve some positions for men, whereas they may reserve other positions for women. If men (or women) are viewed as more productive at certain jobs, easier to train, or more likely to remain at the institution, then those jobs will be reserved for men (or women).

Women use several methods to pull other women into high positions within organizational hierarchies. Cohen and colleagues (1998) stated that women who control hiring and promotion decisions may pull women into jobs through homophily, a process in which job seekers and job fillers prefer to work with similar persons. Women mentoring other women may pull women into and up through organizational hierarchies.

In gender-based information networks, jobs are being filled because of information passed through informal social ties.

Mentorship

Warner and DeFleur (1993) asserted that, because higher education administration is a small field, mentoring can have a significant impact on the career paths of women who aspire to advance in higher education administration. Morrison, White, and Van Velsor (1992) suggested mentoring is a powerful resource for helping women break glass ceilings. Mentors have proven invaluable to persons seeking to advance in academia.

The literature provides several definitions of mentorship. According to Daloz (1986), mentors are experienced persons who guide and influence the career development of persons who have less experience. Collins (1983) characterized mentors as comforters, counselors, critics, educators, and coaches. Other researchers define mentors as individuals who offer guidance and support in helping pave the path for proteges to achieve career goals (Anderson & Ramey, 1990; Braun, 1990; Thompson, 1990).

Mentoring relationships can involve sponsorship, which includes mentors nominating their proteges for administrative positions (Warner & DeFleur, 1993) indicated that. Sponsorship plays an integral role and has major benefits for proteges seeking leadership positions in higher education (Henderson & Welch, 1993; Warner & DeFleur, 1993). When two persons apply for administrative positions, the sponsored individual usually receives the position even though the other applicant is better qualified (Dohrman, 1982).

Hansman (1998) contended women need to be involved in different types of mentoring relationships and cited three types of mentors: psychosocial, career, and peer (Table 4). If women experience difficulties establishing relationships with senior administrators, then they may find peer mentoring to be an acceptable alternative. Some women are involved in group mentoring. Women who are not in a mentoring relationship may participate in group mentoring by forming supportive groups with other women to obtain professional encouragement and affirmation. Women who are more comfortable in psychosocial mentoring relationships may not seek career-related mentoring. These women may need to assess peer mentoring relationships to determine effectiveness in enhancing career development.

According to Hansman (1998), women who seek mentoring relationships may face a number of barriers. First, women may experience difficulty in initiating and maintaining mentorships in male-dominated institutions. Second, women's choices in marriage and childbearing may lead to perceptions that women are less committed to their careers, thus limiting their involvement in mentor–protege relationships. Third, cross-gender mentoring relationships may exclude women as proteges because men may fear gossip about participating in after-work social activities with women or being accused of sexual harrassment. As well, men may worry about developing intimacy or sexual tensions.

Table 4

Benefits of Mentoring Relationships

Type of Mentor	Benefits of Relationship
Career-related (typically the mentor is a supervisor or someone with more experience within the organization or field, same or opposite gender)	• Sponsors protege • Protects protege from organizational politics • Introduces protege to right people • Provides career advice • Helps advance protege's career • Enhances protege's esteem and confidence
Psychosocial (typically the mentor is a supervisor or someone with more experience within the organization or field, same or opposite gender)	• Offers an interpersonal relationship • Provides friendship and emotional support • Provides a role model for protege • Enhances protege's esteem and confidence • Helps advance protege's career
Peer (Typically the mentor is on the same level as the protege; more likely to be a relationship among equals, friends or even family members)	• Lends support for both personal and career development • Affords needed friendship and emotional support • Allows trading of information for career growth • Fosters high degree of trust and collegiality

Note. Adapted from Hansman (1998), p. 65.

Flynn (1993) contended that mentorship is usually available only to men. She asserted few successful men are willing to mentor women. As a result, women miss opportunities to be sponsored for senior administrative positions because they are not part of the "old boy's network." Someone in the old boy's network grooms and recommends

individuals for top positions. This network is an informal process that occurs outside the workplace (i.e., dinner, golf course, gym, drinks) and the process often precludes women.

In contrast, Buddemeier's (1998) study of 162 female community college presidents revealed that men frequently served as their mentors. Eighty-one percent of respondents reported mentors influenced their career development. Fifty-nine percent of respondents had male mentors, 34% had both male and female mentors, and 6.8% had female mentors.

In a recent study of 575 female and male North Carolina community college administrators, three-fourths of the female respondents indicated a colleague influenced their career development (Gillett-Karam, Smith, & Simpson, 1997). Ninety percent of the female respondents reported having a woman as a mentor, whereas three-fourths of the women reported one or two men had served as their mentors.

Several mentoring studies have focused primarily on female college presidents. In examining 58 female presidents' perceptions of the community college presidency, Vaughan (1989) reported more than 72% of the women had mentors to assist them in their career development. Nearly 70% indicated their mentors were males, and 55% of those males were community college presidents. In Sagaria's (1982) study of 180 female administrators, fewer than half the respondents indicated mentorship was an important component in their career. Moore (1982) found that deans, vice presidents, and presidents felt mentorship had contributed to their career advancements in higher education administration. Moore also reported mentor relationships may determine whether a protege may have many or few opportunities for career advancement.

Challenges Encountered by Female College Presidents

Identifying challenges that may interfere with women's career paths in higher education administration may prepare women who aspire to become administrators in higher education to confront those challenges (Warner, Brazzell, Allen, Bostick & Marin, 1988). Several studies focused on the challenges women as administrators or as college presidents face that differ from those that men confront.

Several barriers that impede the advancement of women into higher education administration are identified in the literature. Existing literature indicates women have encountered many barriers in their struggle to advance in all levels of leadership throughout the ages (LeBlanc, 1993, McGill, 1989). LeBlanc (1993) defined barriers "as those factors which circumvent or inhibit either the entry or advancement of women into jobs, occupations, and organizations" (p. 39).

The concept of the "asexual presidency" emerged from Vaughan's (1989b) study of female community college presidents. Vaughan defined the asexual presidency as meaning that gender did not influence the performance of female presidents. Vaughan (1989) wanted to determine if female presidents' performance was influenced by their gender. More than 60% of the respondents from Vaughan's study indicated they found the college presidency to be asexual.

McGill's (1989) study, which focused on three pioneering female presidents, Alice Freeman Palmer (Wellesley College), Martha Carey Thomas (Bryn Mawr College), and Elizabeth Cary Agassiz (Radcliffe College), concluded these presidents pioneered the advancement of women by serving as educational reformers and institutional builders.

These women led institutions during an era when society reinforced traditional views and roles of women. The prevailing belief was women should be limited to a life of domestic servitude (McGill, 1989). Findings from McGill's (1989) study revealed:

> Each woman was forced to come to terms with the conflict between family and career . . . Most women college presidents were single or widowed. Freeman resigned from the presidency to marry. . . . Thomas never married, but eventually came to concede that marriage and family did not automatically preclude intellectual equality and higher education for women. Agassiz set an example as a wife and mother as well as a strong, active advocate for women's intellectual and educational development. (p. 161)

Women continue to experience conflict between family and career. One of the common barriers to women's career development is the divided role of being a professional and a homemaker (Edson, 1988). Being an administrator can be time consuming. Administrators may work 50 to 60 hours a week, possibly more. This work schedule provides limited time for personal or social activities (LeBlanc, 1993). LeBlanc (1993) also reported that, if a female administrator is married, her husband is more likely to have a career of his own. Professional men are usually at an advantage because their spouses may have less demanding jobs than do professional women's spouses. Women do not have a spouse who is responsible for housekeeping and child rearing. As a result, women in administrative positions may be psychologically divided between home and career (LeBlanc, 1993).

Touchton and colleagues' (1993) study of recent female college presidents found the following challenges separated female presidents from their male counterparts:

> being mistaken as one's own support staff; having to be given special dispensation to be allowed membership in previously all-male organizations; coping with various women leader stereotypes; wondering whether one has been chosen for her competencies or for her ability to present "a women's point of view"; and feeling a special responsibility to mentor and play other supportive roles for other women and people of color. (p.46)

Ironside's (1981) study of the careers and backgrounds of senior female administrators of North Carolina four-year colleges and universities revealed that women encountered challenges to their power and authority following their appointment to administrative positions. Some of these challenges were their not being consulted about issues or decisions concerning their area, others receiving credit for their work or not being recognized for their work, and lack of support from colleagues in administrative positions.

Warner and others' (1988) investigation of female and male administrators revealed women more likely than men viewed sex discrimination and family responsibilities as well as getting a late start in their administrative careers as barriers to their advancement in higher education administration. Rosenfeld and Jones (1987) reported female administrators viewed being married or having children and geographic mobility as barriers to advancement in academia.

Witmer (1995) reported a perception among some female college presidents that women are more likely to be appointed to the most difficult presidential jobs either because few men apply for those positions or because women have fewer alternatives. Witmer further stated that women are frequently appointed to the presidency by troubled institutions whose governing boards think that "women will be nurturing and caring and will go in with a great deal of patience cleaning up everything that needs to be done" (Witmer, 1995, p. xxiii).

Sex discrimination and the old boy's network are reported as the most frequent obstacles encountered by female college presidents. The old boy's network or good old boy's network is an internal informal system operating within the academic arena. Men make up the membership of this group, which through a variety of ways prevents women from reaching top administrative posts. These men may unintentionally or purposefully exclude women and allow only men to attain advanced positions. Results from Vaughan's (1989) survey of women community college presidents revealed that some women viewed the old boy's network as a barrier to the presidency.

The concept glass ceiling has become a symbol of inequality for women. The glass ceiling effect is prevalent in both the workforce at large and in community colleges, colleges, and universities. Buddemeier (1998) reported a significant number of women indicated the combination of the old boy's network and the glass ceiling prevented them from being appointed to prestigious posts in higher education. Faulconer's (1995) study of California community colleges' female top administrators revealed many women experienced some form of sex discrimination during their administrative careers.

Sex discrimination, sometimes done covertly, is difficult to identify. That people view sex discrimination differently further complicates its identification (Capozzoli, 1989). Some studies revealed that women feel they must be more qualified than men are before they are considered for positions, especially the college presidency (Amey & Twombly, 1992; Faulconer, 1995).

Political power is another potential obstacle female administrative aspirants must confront as they ascend to the presidency. Harrow (1993) made some assumptions about politics and power in all institutions: (a) strong political arenas exist in all work environments and professional organizations; (b) the world of administrators is complex, including ambiguity, value dilemmas, and political pressures; (c) political power use and abuse for personal gain and self-interest are realities of higher education; and (d) outstanding job performance is not enough to guarantee career advancement or job security.

Women who desire a successful administrative career in higher education must be fully aware of these conditions and learn how to operate within the political power structures. Also, higher education administrators must always be sure to use skillfully and ethically the power under their control. Female administrators must develop political acumen to be successful in their careers. The wrong political power play, just as in litigation, can wreak havoc on an administrative career and have long-lasting ramifications. For female administrators to handle the challenges they face today, they must obtain the much-needed ability to assess the nature of political power conflicts and accurately analyze the contestants in the power struggles in their arenas. Women who

fully comprehend the components of political power become more sophisticated competitors for leadership roles.

Preparation and Professional Development for the College Presidency

Sagaria and Dickens (1990) asserted preparation for career advancement does not happen serendipitously. Persons desiring to move up the administrative ladder in higher education institutions must be willing to become active participants and take responsibility for their career development. Duryea and Bishop's (1980) investigation of college presidents of independent and public higher education institutions revealed that presidents of both independent and public colleges perceived the most valuable preparation for the college presidency to be (a) vice-presidencies of higher education institutions, (b) deanships of higher education institutions, (c) teaching in post-secondary institutions, (d) administrative experience, (e) business and industrial management experience, (f) higher education administrative internships, and (g) academic experience in higher education administration.

Several professional development programs in the form of leadership training and internships offer training to women who are interested in leading colleges and universities. The overall goal of these programs is to provide persons interested in leading higher education institutions opportunities to explore their career interests, expand professional networks, and develop new skills (Sagaria & Dickens, 1990). Two of these programs are the American Council on Education National Identification Program (ACE/NIP) and the Bryn Mawr College/Higher Education Resource Services (HERS). ACE/NIP is designed to promote and advance the careers of female college

administrators. Twenty-five percent of all female presidents during 1987 participated in invitational forums provided by ACE/NIP (Roberts, 1990). Touchton and colleagues (1993) found 32% of the 120 female college presidents studied had participated in the ACE National Identification Program (NIP), and 24% of female college presidents in the ACE National Forum. Touchton and colleagues (1993) also found 2% of female college presidents had participated in Bryn Mawr's HERS, a program established to provide management and governance skills to female administrators (Roberts, 1990).

The American Council on Education Fellows Program (ACE Fellows) and Harvard University Institute for Educational Management (IEM Harvard) are two of several leadership programs that are designed for both women and men in higher education. Before participating in the ACE program, ACE Fellows participants must have 5 years of teaching or administrative experience in higher education. The program's participants complete an internship and receive mentorship at a host college or university, and they observe and participate in a variety of academic administrative functions. Participants also attend seminars that deal with higher education issues through role playing, discussions, lectures, and problem-solving workshops (Roberts, 1990). Touchton and colleagues (1993) found that 13% of female college presidents participated in the ACE Fellows Program. The IEM Harvard program focuses on enhancing senior-level higher education administrators' management and leadership skills (Roberts, 1990). Touchton and colleagues (1993) found that 18% of female college presidents participated in the IEM Harvard program.

Future of Female Presidents of Independent Colleges

Flynn (1993) asserted that factors preventing women from obtaining preparation for leadership positions in higher education have diminished slowly over the past several years. Despite these advancements in obtaining leadership positions, women in the future will continue to encounter challenges in obtaining leadership appointments and support in higher education administration (Naisbitt & Aburdene, 1990). Women will also continue to represent the minority in administrative positions in higher education institutions.

Female leaders of colleges and universities are encountering challenges associated with meeting the expectations of diverse populations in a complex and technological world (Harrow, 1993). Harrow asserted that academic leaders must be prepared to look beyond assessing gender as a barrier. Higher education institutions should be ready to provide equal opportunities for those aspiring leaders who are prepared and willing to serve in higher education administration.

Harrow (1993) reported there are a significant number of women who have the academic preparation, administrative experiences, and desire to assume leadership roles in higher education. To assume leadership roles in academia, Grover (1992) asserted:

> women must attain some prestige in the community; they must assume a certain style of life and share in the privileges, opportunities, association with social groups, income, education, occupation, and powers, all of which give them equality with men in a similar leadership role. (p. 333)

The following recommendations were made to women desiring to break the glass ceiling into higher education administration:

1. start promoting yourself in the right circles,

2. take credit for your work and accomplishments,

3. remember you are in an ever-changing politically complex environment,

4. create situations to associate with people and organizations powerful enough to make a difference in career advancement and survival,

5. keep updated in your field and abreast of current issues affecting you and your institution, and

6. accept that analytical thinking and gamesmenship are essential to success. (Grover, 1992, p. 58)

Women leaders in academia should develop strategic plans for career development, and they must commit themselves to their plan and not allow themselves to become distracted by criticism in a male-dominated world (Grover, 1992).

Summary

For the purpose of this study, occupational internal labor market theory was used as the conceptual framework for identifying and describing the career pathway of female presidents of selected independent colleges and for discussing the implications of identified career pathways of female college presidents. As mentioned earlier, internal labor markets are clusters of jobs that consist of three basic structural features: job ladder, entry only at the bottom, and movement up the job ladder, which is associated with progressive development of knowledge or skill. Occupational internal labor market is a type of internal labor market made of occupations requiring a high degree of theoretical

knowledge before entry into the market. Universities and colleges are considered occupational internal labor markets (Althauser & Kallenberg, 1981).

The career pathways of female college presidents have implications for other women aspiring to become college presidents and for programs and institutions that prepare those women for the college presidency. Positions held prior to the college presidency may be indicative of career pathways leading to the college presidency.

Limited research exists that focuses entirely on the career pathways of female presidents of independent colleges. Also, the culmination of existing literature does not address the mentors and mentees of female presidents of independent colleges. This dissertation addressed selected personal and institutional events that hinder women's ascension to the college presidency. Additionally, the educational and personal background and professional development experiences were examined to develop a profile of female college presidents of independent colleges. The results of this study were compared to research of female college presidents of community colleges.

In this chapter, the researcher presented a literature review of career development in higher education, roles of the college president, leadership effectiveness, history and career pathways of female college presidents, mentorship, challenges encountered by female college presidents, and professional development for the college presidency. From this information, the researcher formulated a conceptual framework and research questions. The research questions are presented according to the themes they addressed.

Research Questions

Career pathways leading to the presidency: The review of the literature revealed that female college presidents have significant experience in faculty roles, and their ascension to the presidency is predicated on their advancing through the ranks of academia. Other studies revealed that not all women attained the college presidency through the pathways of academia.

1. How many female college presidents followed the traditional career pathway of faculty member, division chair, and chief academic officer? What factors were involved in attracting these women to the college presidency? How did these women become candidates for the college presidency?

Preparation and professional development for the presidency: Researchers have suggested that professional development programs and women's participation in different types of mentoring have important implications for their career advancement.

2. How many female presidents had mentors to assist their move up the administrative ladder? How many presidents had more than one mentor? Did female presidents actively seek their mentors or did their mentors actively seek them? How many female presidents sought to be mentors to other women who desire to move up the administrative ladder? What are the relationships between demographic variables (age, total years as college president, and whether they were mentors) and female presidents who had mentors?

3. How many female presidents participated in professional development programs that contributed to their career advancement? Are there any relationships

between variables (age, total years as college president, and having a mentor) and female presidents who participated in professional development programs?

Events affecting career path leading to the presidency: Existing literature indicates women encounter personal and professional barriers during their advancement in all levels of higher education leadership positions.

4. What events in female college presidents' personal lives hindered their ascent to the college presidency? Are there any relationships between variables (age, total years as college president, total number of children, and marital status) and presidents who had events in their personal lives that hindered their ascent to the college presidency?

5. How many female college presidents experienced institutional barriers that hindered their ascent to the college presidency? Are there any relationships between variables (age, total years as college president, women who enjoyed advantages being college president, and women who were asked inappropriate questions during the interview) and presidents who experienced institutional barriers that hindered their ascent to the college presidency?

6. Did women feel they enjoyed advantages as college presidents? Are there any relationships between variables (age, and total years as college presidents) and presidents who enjoyed advantages as college presidents?

Comparison of women presidents of selected independent colleges with women presidents of community colleges: Like female presidents of independent colleges, the history of female community college presidents is not long. In 1975, only 11 women were presidents of community colleges. However, in 1984, compared to other

classifications of higher education institutions, community colleges and independent colleges took the lead in appointing women to the college presidency. Comparing female presidents of independent colleges to their counterparts at community colleges might reveal similarities in the career paths of female presidents of community colleges.

7. How does the profile of women college presidents of independent colleges compare to the profile of women college presidents of community colleges from Buddemeier's (1998) study in regard to degrees held, age, marital status, professional development, and prior presidencies?

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to develop a profile of female presidents of selected four-year independent colleges. The study's primary objective was to provide a review of women's career paths and experiences that led them to the college presidency. Additionally, the profile of female presidents of selected independent colleges were compared to the data from Buddemeier's (1998) profile of female presidents of community colleges with respect to degrees held age, marital status, professional development, and prior presidencies. This study replicated portions of Buddemeier's (1998) study of the career paths, experiences, and perceptions of female community college presidents. Buddemeier's study provided a descriptive profile of female community college presidents' educational and personal backgrounds, professional experiences, career paths , and mentoring relationships.

For this dissertation, female presidents of four-year independent higher education institutions were surveyed. The names of female presidents and their institutions were derived from the American Council on Education database. In this chapter, the researcher described the research design, population, sample, data collection instrument, research questions, and the procedures for data collection and analysis.

Research Design

This study used a descriptive research design and quantitative data collection methods. Descriptive research can be used to generate description of phenomena and

examine possible relationships among different phenomena. Descriptive research describes "what is" (Best, 1981; Gall, Borg, & Gall, 1996), and it documents, analyzes, and interprets phenomena (Best, 1981). This design was used to identify possible variables contributing to women's appointments to the college presidency and to develop a profile of the female presidents of four-year independent colleges.

Descriptive research enabled the researcher to draw a fairly clear and recent picture of the characteristics of persons holding chief academic administrative positions. The data collected from this type of research can be helpful to individuals planning careers in administration (Twombly, 1986). Several studies used descriptive research design to generate a description of college presidents in regards to educational level, gender, age, race, family background, and previous jobs (Buddemeier, 1998; Ross & Green, 1998; Touchton et al., 1993).

This study examined female college presidents' career paths to the presidency, professional and personal experiences, and demographic variables. Data from this study extends knowledge and may serve as a foundation for future studies of female college presidents (Gall et al., 1996). Furthermore, these data may provide direction for women who aspire to become college presidents.

Population and Sample

The target population in Buddemeier's (1998) study was female college presidents of individual public community colleges and of public community college districts in the United States whose institutions were members of the American Association of

Community Colleges. In that study, the population included 145 female community college presidents.

In the current study, the target population was female college presidents of four-year independent colleges derived from the American Council on Education (ACE) Office of Women in Higher Education's database, which is updated weekly. In ACE's database at the time of this study, 164 independent colleges were led by female presidents. Only colleges that are members of ACE are in the database. The 164 female presidents represented the population for this study. The database was last updated in October 1999.

The sample size included 129 female college presidents. Stratified sampling was used to select research participants. The stratified sample comprised female college presidents of four-year independent colleges with student enrollments of 3,000 or less. To be included in this study, a college had to be a member of the American Council on Education. Professional schools and Catholic-affiliated four-year independent colleges were eliminated from the study. Professional schools were not considered germaine to the study. Catholic-affiliated institutions were excluded from the study because these institutions have a longer history of having female college presidents when compared to other religious and nonreligious-affiliated four-year independent colleges, and the career paths of female presidents of Catholic higher educations differed from those of other independent colleges. The exclusion of Catholic-affiliated higher education institutions decreased the risk of skewing collected data.

Instrumentation

A questionnaire was used in this study to collect data on the career paths, profiles, and experiences of female presidents of independent colleges. Researchers frequently use questionnaires to collect data on the characteristics, attitudes, opinions, and perceptions of their research subjects (Borg, 1987). Questionnaries are considered a more convenient way of studying a representative sample. One of the purposes of using questionnaires is to obtain concrete, quantitative data from the subjects (Gopal, 1964).

In this study, the 49-item questionnaire replicated portions of a research instrument used in Buddemeier's (1998) study. The instrument used in Buddemeier's study was derived primarily from studies by Vaughan (1989a), Vaughan and colleagues (1994), and Vaughan and Weisman (1997). Additional ideas stemmed from the works of Curry (1995), Despain (1991), Faulconer (1995), and Oglesby (1993). The instrument was designed to obtain a descriptive profile of female community college presidents and addressed their career patterns, experiences, and perceptions of the college presidency. The instrument was pilot-tested by four female community college presidents, two male community college presidents, and one female professor of higher education who is a prolific writer on female college presidents. Participants in the pilot study were asked to provide feedback on the ease of completing the questionnaire and the clarity and completeness of the questions. Several adjustments were made to the questionnaire on the basis of the participants' comments.

The questionnaire in this dissertation elicited information from eight areas: (a) career paths, (b) mentorship, (c) professional development, (d) events affecting career

paths, (e) educational background, (f) professional background, (g) demographics, and (h) institutional characteristics. The survey contained close-ended questions, with categorical or continuous multiple choice responses. However, for the purpose of this study, some modifications were made to the instrument used in Buddemeier's (1998) study. Questions not relevant to the study were deleted, and questions providing additional dimension were added to the study.

The first part of the questionnaire asked respondents to report on their educational background by identifying specific items related to their highest degree and field of study. To obtain additional information about respondents' educational backgrounds, the respondents indicated if they had ever attended an all-female college. The second part of the questionnaire focused on the college presidency by addressing the respondents' professional backgrounds. That section asked how long respondents served as college presidents, the total number of presidencies held, and other issues relating to their presidency. The third part of the questionnaire focused on positions respondents held prior to their appointment to the presidency and identified person(s) who influenced respondents' career paths. The fourth part focused on events that attracted respondents to or delayed their ascent to the college presidency. The fifth part focused on respondents' perceptions of serving as a college president. The final part addressed respondents' personal and family characteristics.

Threats to Validity

Gall and colleagues (1996) stated "researchers tend to apply looser validity and reliability standards to questionnaires . . . than to tests because the researchers typically

are collecting information that is highly structured and likely to be valid" (p. 291). An example of such information includes respondents' years of work experience. A lower level of item reliability is acceptable when the data are to be analyzed and reported at the group level rather than at the level of individual respondents.

All data for this dissertation and Buddemeier's (1998) study were collected over a period of approximately 8 weeks. The adverse effects of history and maturation and other changes in the data collection procedure were avoided by the limited data collection time period.

Data Collection

In Buddemeier's (1998) study, a total of 145 female community college presidents were mailed a 43-item questionnaire. A cover letter written and signed by George B. Vaughan, professor of higher education, and the researcher accompanied each survey. The cover letter explained the study's purpose and requested the female presidents' participation. Subjects were informed that their responses would remain confidential. The questionnaires were coded to facilitate follow-up with non-respondents. Non-respondents received a reminder letter and a second copy of the questionnaire 3 weeks after the first mailing. The remaining non-respondents received a third copy of the questionnaire with a second reminder letter 3 weeks after the second mailing of questionnaires.

In the current study, all female college presidents of four-year non-Catholic, four-year independent colleges with student enrollments of 3,000 or less were invited to participate in the study. Each subject was mailed a letter explaining the purpose of the

study and asking for their participation (Appendix A). Subjects were informed that their responses would remain confidential. A survey (Appendix B) and a self-addressed stamped envelope accompanied each letter. Each survey contained instructions for its completion and return. To preserve each respondent's confidentiality, the researcher coded each self-addressed stamped postcard that accompanied each survey (Appendix A). Respondents were instructed to mail the postcard separately from the questionnaire, which served to inform the researcher that the respondents did not need reminders and at the same time maintained each respondent's anonymity (Mangione, 1995). Two weeks after the initial mailing, a postcard reminder was mailed to each subject who had not returned the coded postcard (Appendix A). Three weeks after the first mailing, a follow-up letter, accompanied by an additional survey, was mailed to those individuals who had not responded to the first and second mailings (Appendix A). The third letter informed those individuals that their surveys had not been received and encouraged them to complete the survey. The final cut-off date for receiving completed questionnaires was January 20, 2000. This procedure for contacting respondents contributed to an increase in subjects' response rates (Creswell, 1994).

Data Analysis

The focus of the study was to provide a descriptive profile of female presidents of selected independent colleges. A series of planned steps were used to analyze the data. The data collected from the returned questionnaires were used to develop a data file. The data were analyzed using SPSS for Windows 9.0. SPSS procedures are typically used in data analyses for survey research (Healey, Boli, Babbie, & Halley, 1999).

The data were coded into the SPSS system by category and variable number. When respondents did not answer particular questions on the survey, those items were coded as "missing" responses. Questions not answered clearly were also coded as "missing." The sample size for several of the questions varied because some of the questions provided opportunities for multiple responses.

Frequencies and means were used to develop tables of respondents' demographic data, educational attributes, and professional profiles. Frequencies and means were also used to compute demographic data and to identify patterns in collected data. Chi-square, with an alpha level of .05, were used to determine relationships. Cramer's V was used to describe the strength of the relationship. For example, if the magnitude of V was less than .10, the association was weak; .11 to .25, moderate; .26 to .40, moderate; .41 to .50, moderate to strong; and over .50, strong (Craft, 1990, p. 70).

Analysis of Research Questions

1. How many female college presidents followed the traditional career path of faculty member, division chair and chief academic officer? What factors were involved in attracting these women to the college presidency? How did these women become candidates for the college presidency?

Frequencies and percentages were used to describe career paths of female college presidents and the presidency search process. In addition, cross tabulations were used to obtain measures of association of variables pertaining to the career paths.

2. How many female presidents had mentors to assist their move up the administrative ladder? How many presidents had more than one mentor? Did women

presidents actively seek their mentors or did their mentors actively seek them? How many female presidents sought to be mentors to other women who desire to move up the administrative ladder? What are the relationships between demographic variables (age, total years as college president, and whether they were mentors) and female presidents who had mentors?

Frequencies were calculated to describe female presidents' involvement with mentors and mentees. Chi-square analysis, with an alpha level of .05, and cross tabulations were used to determine if any relationships existed between female presidents who had mentors and demographic characteristics. Mentor was used as the dependent variable and demographic characteristics were used as independent variables.

3. How many female presidents participated in professional development programs that contributed to their career advancement? Are there any relationships between variables (age, total years as college president, and having a mentor) and female presidents who participated in professional development programs?

Percentages and frequencies described female college presidents' professional development. Chi-square analysis, with an alpha level of .05, was used to determine if any relationships existed between professional development and demographic characteristics. Professional development was used as the dependent variable and demographic characteristics were used as independent variables. A multiple response table was used to analyze the frequency, percentage of response, and percentage of cases for professional development programs.

4. What events in female college presidents' personal lives hindered their ascent to the college presidency? Are there any relationships between variables (age, total years as college president, total number of children, and marital status) and presidents who had events in their personal lives that hindered their ascent to the college presidency?

Percentages and frequencies described personal events that hindered women's ascent to the college presidency. Chi-square analysis, with an alpha level of .05, and cross tabulations were used to determine if any relationships existed between personal hindrances and demographic characteristics. Personal hindrances were used as dependent variables and demographic characteristics were used as independent variables. A multiple response table was used to analyze the frequency, percentage of response, and percentage of cases for personal hindrances.

5. How many female college presidents experienced institutional barriers that hindered their ascent to the college presidency? Are there any relationships between variables (age, total years as college president, women who enjoyed advantages being college president, and women who were asked inappropriate questions during the interview) and presidents who experienced institutional barriers that hindered their ascent to the college presidency?

Percentages and frequencies described institutional barriers that hindered women's ascent to the college presidency. Chi-square analysis, with an alpha level of .05, and cross tabulations were used to determine if any relationships existed between institutional barriers encountered by female presidents and demographic characteristics. Institutional barriers were used as dependent variables and demographic characteristics

were used as independent variables. A multiple response table was used to analyze the frequency, percentage of response, and percentage of cases for sex discrimination.

6. Did women feel they enjoyed advantages as college presidents? Are there any relationships between variables (age, and total years as college presidents) and presidents who enjoyed advantages as college presidents?

Percentages and frequency counts can describe whether female college presidents enjoyed certain advantages. A multiple response table was used to analyze the frequency, percentage of response, and percentage of cases for advantages enjoyed by female college presidents.

7. How does the profile of female college presidents of independent colleges compare to the profile of female college presidents of community colleges from Buddemeier's (1998) study in regard to degrees held, age, marital status, professional development, and prior presidencies?

Chi-square analysis with an alpha level of .05 was used to determine if any significant differences existed between the profile of female presidents of independent colleges and the profile of female presidents of community colleges.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to assess the career paths and experiences of female presidents of selected independent four-year colleges. In this chapter, the researcher provided an outline of the methods used to address this study's purpose and the research questions. A descriptive research design and quantitative paradigm were used in the study.

Several sampling constraints were employed. Only female college presidents of four-year independent colleges that had a student enrollment of 3,000 or less were included in the study. The names of the female presidents and their institutions were derived from ACE. Catholic-affiliated colleges were excluded from the study to decrease the risk of skewed results.

A questionnaire was mailed to each of the 129 female college presidents, and 91 female presidents responded to the survey. Data collection procedures, the statistical and analysis of each research question were presented.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This study focused on determining the career paths, profiles, and perceptions of female presidents of selected independent colleges and universities with student enrollment of 3,000 or less in the United States whose colleges are members of the American Council on Education. A 49-item survey was used to collect data for the study. The results of data analysis are presented in this chapter.

The study had 91 respondents who were female college presidents as defined in this study. Five surveys were not completed and were eliminated for the following reasons: (a) one survey was returned by the institution stating that the female president had recently left the institution, (b) two participants because they were males did not complete the survey, (c) and two surveys were returned because participants had insufficient time to complete the survey. With the elimination of the surveys that were not completed, the actual population of the study was 129 female college presidents. Female presidents of Catholic colleges were excluded from this study. The survey return rate was 70.5% (91 out of 129), which, according to Mangione (1995), is a very good response rate. No completed surveys were eliminated from the study. In Buddemeier's study, the actual population was 145 female community college presidents, and the return rate for the group was 88.2% (128 out of 145).

Characteristics of the Population

The demographic characteristics of the 91 respondents are presented in Tables 5-12. As shown in Table 1, the geographical regions with the highest number of respondents were the Middle States and North Central regions tied at 29.70% each. The lowest number of respondents came from the Northwest region.

Table 1

Female College Presidents' Location by Accreditation Region

Accreditation Region	% of Presidents (n)
Middle States Association of Colleges and Schools (DE, MD, NJ, NY, PA)	29.70 (27)
New England Association of Schools and Colleges (CN, ME, MA, NH, RI, VT)	17.60 (16)
North Central Association of Colleges and Schools (AZ, AR, CO, IL, IN, IA, KS, MI, MN, MO, NE, NM, ND, OH, OK, SD, WV, WI, WY)	29.70 (27)
Northwest Association of Schools and Colleges (AS, ID, MT, NV, OR, UT, WA)	3.30 (3)
Southern Association of Colleges and Schools (AL, FL, GA, KY, LA, MS, NC, SC, TN, TX, VA)	14.30 (13)
Western Association of Schools and Colleges (CA,HA)	5.65 (5)

Note. N = 91.

Each respondent's age, race/ethnicity, marital status, and number of children is presented in Table 2. The average age of female college presidents was 56 years (M = 55.62). The oldest president was 73; the youngest was 40. The presidents were asked to categorize themselves by race or ethnicity. Caucasians made up the majority (95.6%, n = 87); the remainder (4.4%, n = 4) was African-American. Most of the presidents were married (62.6%, n = 57), and most of them (70.4%, n = 57) had from 1 to 7 children.

Table 2

Personal Demographic Characteristics of Female College Presidents

Demographic Characteristic	% of Presidents (n)
Age[a]	
Under 50	14.4 (13)
50-59	58.9 (53)
60 and over	26.7 (24)
Race/Ethnicity	
Caucasian, non-Hispanic	95.6 (87)
African-American	4.4 (4)
Marital Status	
Married	62.6 (57)
Divorced/Separated	11.0 (10)
Widowed-not remarried	2.2 (2)
Single-never married	24.2 (22)
Number of Children[b]	
0	29.6 (24)
1	12.3 (10)
2	34.6 (28)
3	18.5 (15)
4	1.2 (1)
5	1.2 (1)
6	--
7	2.5 (2)

Note. N = 91, with 1 non-response for age and 10 non-responses for number of children.

[a] M = 55.6. [b] M = 1.7.

The presidents were also asked two questions about their spouse's or partner's employment (Table 3). A majority of the presidents responded that her spouse or partner was employed full time (77.1%, n = 37), whereas 22.9% (n = 11) were employed part time. Twenty-five percent (n = 12) of the president's spouses or partners, employed at least part time (n = 48), were employed at the same institution as the respondent, and 43.8% (n = 21) were employed at another institution.

Table 3

Spouse's or Partner's Employment

	Employment Status	
Employer	Full time (n = 37)	Part time (n = 11)
Employed by Institution	21.6% (8)	36.4 (4)
Employed by another institution	51.4% (19)	18.2% (2)
Self-employed	27.0% (10)	45.5% (5)

Note. N = 91, with 43 non-responses.

The female college presidents' educational backgrounds were diverse (Table 4). Almost all (93.3%, n = 84) the female college presidents held doctorate or professional degrees. The fields of education (26.7%, n = 24) and the humanities/fine arts (30.0%, n = 27) accounted for more than half the college presidents' doctorate degrees. The other areas of study included religion/ theology, physical/natural sciences, social science, and law.

Table 4

Respondents' Educational Backgrounds

Education	% of Presidents (n)
Highest Educational Level	
Ph.D.	66.7 (60)
Ed.D.	17.8 (16)
Professional (MD, JD, DDS)	6.7 (6)
Other Doctorate	2.2 (2)
Master's	5.6 (5)
Bachelor's Degree	1.1 (1)
Major Field of Study	
Humanities/Fine Arts	30.0 (27)
Religion/Theology	3.3 (3)
Social Sciences	16.7 (15)
Law	2.2 (2)
Other	14.4 (13)

Note. N = 91, with 1 non-response.

The number of years between the time that a president received her doctorate degree and obtained her first presidency ranged from 0 to 33 years with a mean of 14.11 years (Table 5). The majority of the respondents (30.0, n = 27) obtained her first appointment to the presidency within 16 and 20 years of receiving her doctorate. Only one president (1.1%) responded that it took from 31-35 years to obtain her first presidency, and 16 women (18.0%) reported that it took only 0-5 years to obtain her first appointment as a college president.

Table 5

Years Between Earning Doctorate and Obtaining First Presidency

Years[a]	% of Presidents (n)
0-5	18.0 (16)
6-10	13.3 (12)
11-15	21.1 (19)
16-20	30.0 (27)
21-25	13.2 (12)
26-30	3.3 (3)
31-35	1.1 (1)

Note. N = 91, with 1 non-response.

[a] M = 14.1 years.

The college presidents also reported if they had ever attended an all-female college. Forty-four percent of the respondents (n = 40) indicated they had attended an all-female college. Of the presidents who attended all-female colleges, 90.0% (n = 36) received a bachelor's degree, one of these presidents also received a Ph.D., and 10.0% (n = 4) attended an all-female college but did not receive a degree from that institution.

Respondents were questioned about their professional backgrounds (Table 6). Most of the respondents were in their first presidency (93.4%, n = 85) and had been in that position for 5 or fewer years (50.0%, n = 48). A majority of the presidents had been president for 10 or fewer years (80.0%, n = 72). Most were in their 50s (58.9%, n = 53), and they had been appointed to their first presidency at age 40 or above (95.6%, n = 86).

Table 6

Respondents' Professional Backgrounds

Demographic Characteristic	% of Presidents (n)
Years in Current Position (N = 91)[a]	
5 years or less	52.7 (48)
6-10 years	28.6 (26)
11-15 years	12.1 (11)
16-25 years	5.5 (5)
26 years and above	1.1 (1)
Years as college president (N = 90)[b]	
5 years or less	50.0 (45)
6-10 years	30.0 (27)
11-15 years	13.3 (12)
16-25 years	5.6 (5)
26 years and above	1.1 (1)
Number of college presidencies (N = 91)[c]	
1	93.4 (85)
2	6.6 (6)
Age upon assuming first presidency (N = 90)[d]	
Under 40 years old	4.4 (4)
40 to 49 years old	47.3 (43)
50 years olds or older	47.3 (43)
First female president at your college (N = 90)	
Yes	40.0% (36)
No	60.0% (54)
Chief confidant (N = 89)	
Chief Academic Officer	29.2 (26)
Chief Business Officer	12.4 (11)
Chief Student Affairs Officer	2.2 (2)
Assistant to the President	18.0 (16)
Other Vice President/Dean	6.7 (6)
Other	12.4 (11)
No one	19.1 (17)
Chief confidant's gender (N = 74)	
Male	36.5 (27)
Female	63.5 (47)

Note. N = 91 for number of years in current position, number of college presidencies, with 1 non-response for years as college president, for age upon assuming first presidency; two non-responses for chief confidant and 17 non-responses chief confidant's gender.

[a] M = 6.7 years. [b] M = 7.0 years. [c] M = 1.0 presidencies. [d] M = 48.8 years.

The presidents were asked about their professional development, including how they became candidates for their first college presidency, if they were the first female president of the college, and the number of college presidencies they had held. A majority of the female college presidents were not internal candidates for the presidency at the college where they first served as president (69.2%, $\underline{n} = 63$). Interestingly, the majority of the respondents (60.0%, $\underline{n} = 54$) were not the first female president of their current institution. Of the college presidents who had held two presidencies, 66.7% (4 out of 6) were the first female presidents at the institution where they held their first presidency.

The majority of female presidents were serving at co-ed liberal arts institutions with student enrollments 2,000 but less than 3,000 (Table 7). The numbers of respondents serving at religious or non-religious-affiliated institutions were nearly equal (51.6% and 48.4%, respectively.

Summary of Demographic Characteristics

From the data collected in this study, the typical female president of selected independent colleges is 56 years old, Caucasian, and married with at least one child. She has earned a doctoral degree in education or in humanities/fine arts. Approximately 14 years has passed between the time she earned her doctorate and assumed her first presidency. She has been in her current position for approximately 7 years and assumed her first presidency around age 49. Though not all the respondents fit all these demographic characteristics, the percentages and means indicate this profile of the typical president.

Table 7

Institutional Characteristics

Demographic Characteristic	% of Presidents (n)
Enrollment[a]	
Less than 1,000 students	29.7 (27)
1,000 but less than 2,000	33.0 (30)
2,000 but less than 3,000	37.4 (34)
Institutional category	
Co-educational	61.5 (56)
All-female college	38.5 (35)
Religion affiliated	
Yes	51.6 (47)
No	48.4 (44)
Institutional classification	
Liberal arts college	70.3 (64)
Comprehensive college	27.5 (25)
Doctoral granting	2.2 (2)

Note. N = 91 for Institutional classification, religion affiliated, and enrollment.

[a] M = 1,575.6 students.

Exploring and Testing the Research Questions

The seven research questions presented and discussed in Chapters Two and Three were used as a guide in this research. A detailed analysis of the findings for each question is presented. Chi-square analyses were performed at alpha level .05.

Research Question 1

Research question one addressed career pathways leading to the college presidency. Each respondent was asked what her entry-level position was into the area of higher education. Sixty-four (70.3%, n = 64) of the presidents responded that their entry-

level position was as a faculty member.The "other positions" category (17.6%, n = 16) had the second highest number of responses.

Regarding their entry-level position in higher education, the presidents were asked about which field they had entered. Most presidents' entry-level position was in academic affairs (71.4%, n = 65). The "other" category (positions not specified on the questionnaire) was the second highest area in which the presidents entered higher education (17.6%, n = 16).

Female college presidents were asked questions about their interest in becoming president (Figure 1). Almost one-third of the presidents responded that their interest in the presidency was because it was the next step on the administrative ladder (28.6%, n = 26). For 25.3% (n = 23) of the presidents, their interest in the presidency became a goal as they moved up the administrative ladder. In contrast, only 4.4% (n = 4) of the presidents responded that seeking the presidency was their goal since entering the field of higher education.

The presidents were asked how they became candidates for their current presidential position (Table 8). A majority (63.8%, n = 58) of the respondents indicated they were either contacted by a search firm or were nominated and accepted the nominations for their current positions.

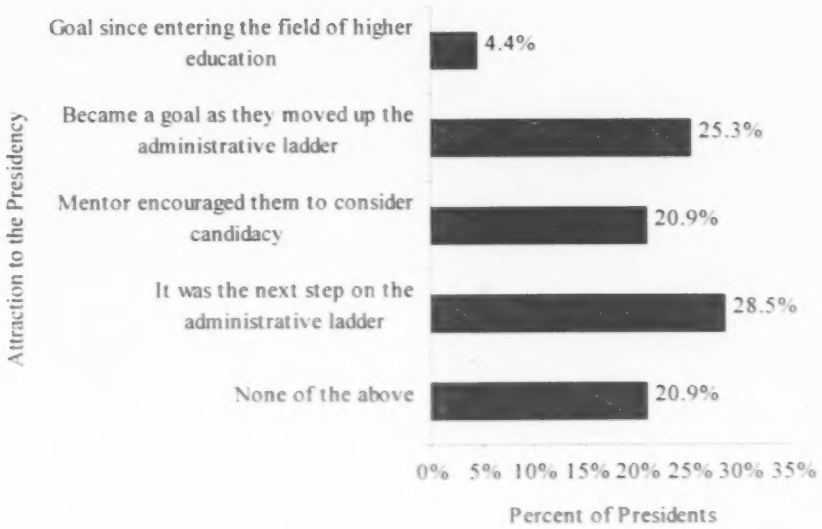
Goal since entering the field of higher education
4.4%
Became a goal as they moved up the administrative ladder
25.3%
Mentor encouraged them to consider candidacy
20.9%
It was the next step on the administrative ladder
28.5%
None of the above
20.9%
Attraction to the Presidency
0% 5% 10% 15% 20% 25% 30% 35%
Percent of Presidents

Figure 1. Source of presidents' interest in becoming president. N = 91, with 2 non-responses.

Table 8

How Presidents Became Interested in Current Position

Response	%	f
Nominated and accepted nomination	34.1%	31
Contacted by search firm	29.7%	27
Serving in "acting" capacity	11.0%	10
Contacted by a search committee	9.9%	9
Applied without pervious nomination	6.6%	6
Encouraged by a member of institution	3.3%	3
None of the above	5.5%	5

Note. N = 91, with 2 non-responses.

Presidents were asked if they had ever held the position of department or division chair, which is a step in the traditional career path for female presidents. More than half (59.3%, n = 54) of the presidents responded that they had not held the position of department or division chair.

Cross tabulations were performed to compare and summarize presidents' responses for entry-level positions and position held prior to obtaining their first presidency (Table 9). The largest group of female college presidents had entered higher education as a faculty member and then moved into a vice presidency (34.7%, n = 34). Those vice presidencies were not limited to academic affairs but include all areas of the college. The data in this table excludes the position of department or division chair as a position prior to the presidency, which is a component of the traditional presidential career path.

The traditional career path for college presidents includes entry into the field of higher education as a faculty member, followed by holding the position of department/ division head, and then vice president of academic affairs prior to obtaining the presidency. Thirty-seven presidents (40.7%) held the position of department/division chair (Table 10). From the survey results, only 12.1% (11) of the 91 presidents followed the traditional career path. Figure 2 depicts the career paths of the presidents. Thirty-three percent (n = 30) of the female presidents held the position of chief academic officer immediately prior to the presidency, 28% (n = 25) held the positions of faculty member and chief academic officer, and only 12.1% (n = 11) followed the traditional career path.

Table 9

Career Paths of Respondents' Entry Level Positions and Positions Prior to the Presidency

	Immediate Position Prior to the Presidency					
Entry-level position	Asst to the President % (n)	Vice President % (n)	Assistant/ Associate VP % (n)	Dean % (n)	Assistant/ Associate Dean % (n)	Other % (n)
Faculty Member	--	34.7 (34)	3.3 (3)	13.2 (12)	--	16.5 (15)
Coordinator	--	2.2 (2)	--	1.1 (1)	2.2 (2)	1.1 (1)
Director	--	2.2 (2)	--	--	1.1 (1)	1.1 (1)
Department Head/Chair	--	--	--	1.1 (1)	--	--
Other	1.1 (1)	8.8 (8)	--	2.2 (2)	--	5.5 (5)

Note. N = 91.

Table 10

Career Paths of Female Presidents Who Held Position of Department/Division Chair

	Immediate Position Prior to First Presidency				
	VP Academic Affairs	VP	Assistant/Associate Vice President	Dean	Other
Entry-Level Position	% (n)	% (n)	% (n)	% (n)	% (n)
Faculty Member	12.1 (11)	3.4 (3)	1.1 (1)	9.0 (8)	10.0 (9)
Coordinator	1.1 (1)	--	--	--	--
Department Head/ Chair	--	--	--	1.1 (1)	--
Other	3.4 (3)	--	--	--	--

Note. N = 91, with 54 responding negatively. For the purpose of this study, a department/division chair is defined as an administrator who may teach, has responsibility for more than one program or discipline, and evaluates faculty.

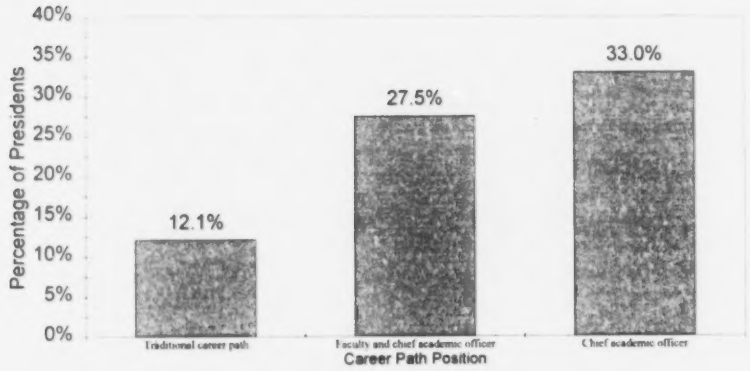

Figure 2. Female independent college presidents' career paths. N = 91.

Summary of Female Presidents' Career Paths

Most of the female presidents in this study began their careers in higher education as faculty members. Most were appointed to their current positions either by being nominated or being contacted by search firms. These presidents usually held a position in academic affairs immediately prior to assuming their first presidency. More than half the presidents did not hold the position of department or division chair, which is a step in the traditional career path.

Eleven of the 91 presidents held three positions within the traditional career path for president, which are faculty member, department/division chair, and chief academic officer. One-third of the presidents held the position of chief academic officer prior to assuming their first presidency.

Research Question 2

This research question addressed mentorship of females for the college presidency. The presidents were asked if they had mentors who played a role in assisting them as they moved up the administrative ladder. If they responded yes, they were asked if the assistance was direct or indirect. Also, the mentor's gender and relationship to the president were requested. The presidents were asked if they actively sought mentors or if the mentors sought them. To quantify the number of mentors, the presidents were asked how many mentors they had. The presidents were also asked if they were mentors and the gender of the person they mentored.

Examination of the data revealed most female college presidents (56.0%, $n = 51$) had primary mentors who played a role in assisting their move up the administrative

ladder, but 44% (n = 40) had no primary mentors. The primary mentors had both direct and indirect roles in the female presidents' advancement. Of the presidents who had mentors, the percentages were nearly equal for mentors who assisted the presidents directly (53.1%, n = 26) and for those who assisted the president indirectly (46.9%, n = 23). The majority of the presidents' mentors were male (68.6%, n = 35). Only 31.4% (n = 16) of the presidents had a primary mentor who was female.

The presidents were also asked who served as their primary mentors. Of the 51 respondents who had primary mentors, more than half the mentors (51.0%, n = 26) were also college presidents, and 43.1% (n = 22) were senior administrators of colleges. Only one president (1.1%) had primary mentors who were either a friend, faculty member, or other.

College presidents were asked how their relationships were formed with their primary mentors, whether the president actively sought their mentor or if the mentor actively sought the presidents. Thirty presidents (71.4%) responded their mentors actively sought them, whereas 28.6% (n = 12) of the presidents actively sought their mentors. The college presidents were questioned about the number of mentors that they had. The majority of the presidents (63.1%, n = 53) responded they had three or fewer mentors, 18 (21.4%) had no mentor, and 13 (15.5%) had four or more mentors.

The college presidents were questioned about their role as mentors to others. They were asked if they were serving as mentors and what the gender was of their mentees. The majority of the presidents (64.4%, n = 58) stated they were mentors. Of those

presidents who were mentors, 30 (50.8%) mentored both males and females, and 25 (42.4%) mentored females only.

Further analysis using cross-tabulation was used to determine other relationships concerning presidents who had and did not have mentors. Chi-square analysis was used to determine if a significant relationship existed between the number of years a president served and primary mentorship. The results showed no significant relationship, χ^2 (2, N = 90) = .468, p = .792. A majority of the presidents (60.0%, n = 27) who had mentors had served as a college president for 5 or fewer years. In contrast, no presidents with 26 years' experience or more had a primary mentor who had helped them on their move up the administrative ladder.

To determine the relationship of the presidents' current age to primary mentorship, cross-tabulation was performed using the presidents' current age as the independent variable and having or not having a primary mentor as the dependent variables (Table 11). A chi-square analysis was performed on this cross-tabulation to determine if any significant relationship existed between the presidents' current age and whether or not they had a primary mentor. No significant relationship was found, χ^2 (2, N = 90) =3.377, p = .185. College presidents between the ages of 50 and 59 years old with primary mentors represented the largest number of responses (60.4%, n = 32).

The relationship between whether or not the presidents attended an all-female college and whether or not they had a mentor was analyzed. Chi-square analysis was performed to determine if a significant relationship existed between the variable whether or not a president attended an all-female college and the variable whether or not the

president had a mentor. No significant relationship was found, χ^2 (1, N = 90) =.081, p = .775. The majority of female presidents who had mentors (58.0%, n = 29) did not attend an all-female college. Presidents who did not attend an all-female college and did not have a primary mentor were slightly fewer than the first group (42.0%, n = 21).

Table 11

Relationship between Presidents' Current Age and Having a Mentor

	Presidents' Current Age		
	Under 50 years	50 - 59 years	60 years
Primary Mentor	% (n)	% (n)	% (n)
Had	61.5 (8)	61.1 (33)	39.1 (9)
Did not have	38.5 (5)	38.9 (21)	60.9 (14)

Note. N = 91, with 1 non-response. χ^2 (2, N = 90) =3.377, p = .185. α = .05.

Further analysis was performed to determine if there was a relationship between presidents who had or did not have a primary mentor and whether or not the president was a mentor (Table 12). To determine if a significant relationship existed between these two variables, a chi-square was done. The results showed no significant relationship between whether or not a president had a primary mentor and whether or not the president was a mentor to someone else, χ^2 (1, N = 90) =.148, p = .700. Cross-tabulation revealed that 55% (n = 32) of presidents who had mentors were mentors to someone else (55.2%, n = 32). 44.8% (n = 26) of presidents who had mentors were not mentors to anyone else.

Table 12

Relationship between Presidents Having a Mentor and Presidents Being a Mentor

	Is a mentor	Is not a mentor
Primary mentor	% (n)	% (n)
Had	55.2 (32)	59.4 (19)
Did not have	44.8 (26)	40.6 (13)

Note. N = 91, with 1 non-response. χ^2 (1, N = 90) =.148, p = .700. α = .05.

A chi-square analysis revealed no significant relationship between number of years served as president and whether or not the president was a mentor, χ^2 (2, N = 89) = 4.358, p = .113. A cross-tabulation of the number of years that the female college presidents served as a president and whether or not she was a mentor revealed that 34% (75.6%) of the respondents serving as mentors had 5 or fewer years' experience as presidents. Fifteen (55.6%) presidents serving as mentors had 6-10 years of experience.

An additional analysis was performed to determine if there was a relationship between the presidents' current age and whether or not she served as a mentor (Table 13). The results of chi-square analysis indicated a significant relationship between the current age of the president and mentorship, χ^2 (2, N = 89) = 11.207, p = .004. The age group with the highest rate of serving as mentors was 50-59 years old (73.6%, n = 39), whereas more than three-quarters of the presidents (76.9%, n = 10) under the age of 50 reported not having served as mentors. A moderate relationship existed between the current age of

the president and the president being a mentor (V = .355). Older presidents were more likely than younger presidents to be a mentor.

Table 13

Presidents Who Are Mentors by Current Age

	Current Age		
	Under 50 Years	50 -59 Years	60 Years or Older
President	% (n)	% (n)	% (n)
Is a mentor	23.1 (3)	72.2 (39)	68.2 (15)
Is not a mentor	76.9 (10)	27.8 (15)	31.8 (7)

Note. N = 91, with 2 non-responses. χ^2 (2, N = 89) = 11.207. p = .004. α = .05. V = .355.

Summary of Female Presidents' Mentor Relationships

More than half the female presidents in this study of selected independent colleges had mentors who directly assisted in their move up the administrative ladder. The presidents' mentors were mostly males who were usually senior administrators. Three-fourths of the mentors actively sought the presidents to establish the mentoring relationship. The largest number of mentors per president was two.

Sixty-four percent of the presidents were serving as mentors. No significant relationship was found between the presidents having a mentor and whether or not they served as mentors to others. Significant relationships did exist between the president

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serving as a mentor and the years served as a college president and whether the president is a mentor and the current age of the president.

Research Question 3

The survey instrument included two questions concerning professional development programs. The presidents were asked in which professional development programs they had participated. The query was designed to determine if professional development programs assisted these women in becoming college presidents.

Several programs offer training to females who are interested in leading colleges and universities. Two of those programs are the American Council on Education National Identification Program (ACE/NIP) and the Bryn Mawr College/Higher Education Resource Services (HERS). ACE/NIP is designed to promote and advance the careers of female college administrators. The American Council on Education Fellows Program (ACE Fellows) and Harvard University Institute for Educational Management (IEM Harvard) are two of several leadership programs designed for both women and men in higher education.

On the survey instrument, the respondents were asked in which continuing education professional development program(s) they had participated: Harvard Educational Management Program, American Council on Education National Identification Program, American Council on Education Fellows Program, State Sponsored Program, Bryn-Mawr College's HERS, or some other program (Table 14). The Harvard Educational Management Program was the program most attended by the respondents (37.4%, $\underline{n} = 37$). The second most-attended program was the American

Council on Education National Identification Program (21.2%, n = 21), which includes both female and male participants in its programs. The Bryn-Mawr College's Program, designed for females only, received the least number of responses (6.1%, n = 6).

Table 14

Presidents' Participation in Professional Development Programs

Professional Development Programs	f	% of Responses	% of Cases
Harvard Educational Management	37	37.4	56.1
American Council on Education National	21	21.2	31.8
American Council on Education Fellows	8	8.1	12.1
State Sponsored Program	8	8.1	12.1
Bryn-Mawr Colleges HERS	6	6.1	9.1
Other	19	19.2	28.8

Note. Only 66 of the 91 presidents responded, but respondents could select more than one response, so total number of responses was 99.

The presidents were asked to select the benefits they received from participation in professional development programs (Figure 3). "Enhanced professional skills" (38.8%, n = 54) and "provided networking opportunities" (36.3%, n = 49) were the two benefits with the highest number of responses. The fewest responses (10.8%, n = 15) were for "desire to seek the presidency."

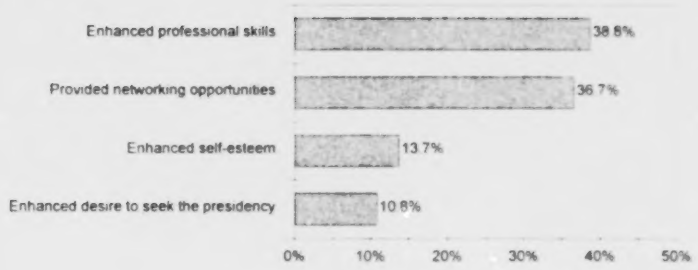

Figure 3. Benefits from professional development programs. Cases = 64, responses = 139.

The questionnaire allowed the presidents to select as many benefits of participating in professional development that applied (Table 15). Sixty-four (70.3%) of presidents responded to this question.

Table 15

Benefits of Participation in Professional Development Programs

Benefits Derived	f	% of Responses	% of Cases
Enhanced professional skills	54	38.8	84.4
Provided networking opportunities	51	36.7	79.7
Enhanced self-esteem	19	13.7	29.7
Enhanced desire to seek the presidency	15	10.8	23.4

Note. Cases = 64, responses = 139.

A cross-tabulation of the presidents' responses to the two highest ranking benefits (based on frequency) received was compared to the professional development program attended (Table 16). More than half the presidents responded that the benefits received most often from participating in professional development (enhanced professional skills and networking opportunities) attended the Harvard Education Management Programs (56.1%) and the ACE National Identification Program (58.9%).

Table 16

Professional Development Benefits Gained by Program

	Benefit	
Professional Development Program	Enhanced Professional Skills[a] % (n)	Networking Opportunities[b] % (n)
Harvard Educational Management	34.1 (28)	33.7 (27)
ACE Education Fellows	8.5 (7)	10.0 (8)
ACE National Identification	22.0 (18)	25.0 (20)
State-sponsored	8.5 (7)	7.5 (6)
Bryn-Mawr College HERS	7.4 (6)	6.3 (5)
Other	19.5 (16)	17.5 (14)

[a] n = 82. [b] n = 80.

Cross-tabulation was used to analyze the variables of the number of years as a college and whether or not the presidents participated in professional development. Chi-square analysis was performed to determine if a significant relationship existed between the number of years as a college president and the presidents who participated in professional development. No significant relationship was found, χ^2 (1, $\underline{N}$ = 90) = 1.680, $\underline{p}$ = .432. The highest rates of participation in professional development by age group were 5 or fewer years (68.9%, $\underline{n}$ =31), 6-10 years (81.5%, $\underline{n}$ = 22), 11 or more years (66.7%, $\underline{n}$ = 12). Only one respondent had more than 26 years of experience, and she did not participate in professional development.

In further analysis of the presidents' professional development, cross-tabulation was done to determine if there was a significant relationship between the presidents' current age and whether or not the president participated in professional development (Table 17). Chi-square analysis showed that a significant relationship existed between the presidents' current age and whether or not the president participated in professional development, χ^2 (2, $\underline{N}$ = 90) = 8.895, $\underline{p}$ = .012. A moderate relationship existed between the presidents' current age and their participation in professional development ($\underline{V}$ = .314). Older presidents tended to participate in professional development programs at higher rates than did younger presidents. Presidents who were 50-59 years of age participated in professional development most frequently (79.6%, $\underline{n}$ = 43). Seventy-four percent ($\underline{n}$ = 17) of the presidents who were 60 years or older participated in professional development programs. A majority of the presidents under 50 years old did not participate in professional development (61.5%, $\underline{n}$ = 8).

Table 17

Presidents Who Participated in Professional Development Programs by Current Age

	Current Age		
	Under 50 years	50 - 59 years	60 years or older
Professional Development	% (n)	% (n)	% (n)
Participated in	38.5 (5)	79.6 (43)	73.9 (17)
Did not participate in	61.5 (8)	20.4 (11)	26.1 (6)

Note. N = 91, with 1 non-response. χ^2 (2, N = 90) = 8.895, p = .012. α = .05. V = .314.

Cross-tabulation was performed on the relationship between whether or not the president had a mentor and whether or not the president participated in professional development (Table 18). Chi-square analysis showed no significant relationship between whether or not a president had a mentor and whether or not the president participated in professional development, χ^2 (1, N = 91) =.219, p = .640. Presidents who had mentors participated in professional development most frequently (70.6%, n = 36). However, 75.0% (n = 30) of the presidents who did not have mentors participated in professional development. Presidents who did not have mentors participated least in professional development (25.0%, n = 10).

Table 18

Presidents Who Participated in Professional Development Programs by Primary Mentor

	Had a mentor	Did not have a mentor
Professional Development	% (n)	% (n)
Participated in	70.6% (36)	75.0% (30)
Did not participate in	29.4% (15)	25.0% (10)

Note. N = 91. χ^2 (1, N = 91) = .219, p = .640. α = .05.

Summary of Presidents' Professional Development

More than half the presidents participated in the Harvard Educational Management Program, which is designed for both men and women. The two benefits reported by respondents as most helpful from participating in professional development programs were "enhancement of professional skills" and the "provided opportunity for networking." The only significant relationship was found between the presidents' current age and participation in professional development.

Research Question 4

This question addressed personal events or hindrances that affected the female college presidents' ascent to the presidency. Relationships between the variables (age, total years as college president, total number of children, and marital status) and presidents who had events in their personal lives that hindered their ascent to the college presidency were examined.

Slightly more than two-thirds (70.0%, n = 63) of the presidents responded that they did not have any personal hindrances that affected their ascent to the presidency. Of

the presidents who reported that personal events hindered their ascent to the presidency, 28.8% (n = 17) responded that geographical constraints were the greatest hindrances. Maternal responsibilities (22%, n = 13) followed geographical constraints as the second most reported personal event that was a hindrance to the presidential ascent (Table 19).

The presidents were asked to respond to all of the personal hindrances that affected their ascent to the presidency. Therefore, 28 (30.8%) presidents responded to this question, but because they could select multiple answers there were 59 total responses.

Table 19

Personal Hindrances to the Presidency

Personal Hindrances	f	% of Responses	% of Cases
Marital	10	16.9	35.7
Maternal	13	22.0	46.4
Geographically constrained by spouse or other family member	17	28.8	60.7
Other family	2	3.4	7.1
Late start in career	10	16.9	35.7
Other	7	11.9	25.0

Note. Cases = 28, responses = 59.

An analysis was conducted to determine if a relationship existed between the number of years as a college president and having or not having personal hindrances affecting the presidential ascent. Results of chi-square analysis showed no significant relationship between the number of years as a college president and whether or not the

presidents had personal hindrances affecting their ascent to the presidency, χ^2 (2, N = 90) = 1.481, p = .477. Sixteen presidents (35.6%) with 5 years or fewer as a college president responded that they had experienced personal hindrances in their ascent to the presidency. In contrast, 64.4% (n = 29) of presidents with 5 or fewer years as a president did not have personal hindrances that affected their ascent to the presidency. Seventy-seven percent (n = 21) of the presidents with 6-10 years as a president responded they did not have personal hindrances affecting their ascent to the presidency.

Cross-tabulation was made between whether or not the president had personal hindrances and the presidents' current age to determine if there was a relationship (Table 20). A chi-square analysis showed no significant relationship between the presidents' current age and whether or not the president had personal hindrances that affected their ascent to the presidency, χ^2 (2, N = 90) = 2.259, p = .323. Presidents who were 50-59 years of age responded they did not have personal hindrances (75.9%, n = 41) affecting their ascent to the presidency.

Table 20

Personal Hindrances to the Presidency by Current Age

	Current Age		
	Under 50 years	50 - 59 years	60 years or older
Personal Hindrances	% (n)	% (n)	% (n)
Had	38.5 (5)	24.1 (13)	39.1 (9)
Did not have	61.5 (8)	75.9 (41)	60.9 (14)

Note. N = 41. χ^2 (2, N = 90) = 2.259, p = .323. α = .05.

An analysis of the relationship between the hindrances affecting the presidential ascent and the presidents' number of children was conducted. Chi-square analysis showed a significant relationship between the number of children and whether or not the president had personal hindrances affecting their ascent to the presidency, χ^2 (3, N = 81) = 16.562, p = .001 (V = .452). College presidents who had more children seemed to have more personal hindrances that affected their ascent to the presidency that did presidents with fewer children. Presidents with no children responded most often that they did not have personal hindrances that affected their ascent to the presidency (87.5%, n = 21), closely followed by presidents with two children (71.4%, n = 20). This analysis (Table 21) showed a moderately strong relationship between the number of children and presidents experiencing personal hindrances.

Table 21

Personal Hindrances to the Presidency by Number of Children

	Number of Children			
	0	1	2	3 or more
Personal Hindrances	% (n)	% (n)	% (n)	% (n)
Had	12.5 (3)	20.0 (2)	28.6 (8)	68.4 (13)
Did not have	87.5 (21)	80.0 (8)	71.4 (20)	31.6 (6)

Note. N = 91, with 10 non-responses. χ^2 (3, N = 81) = 16.562, p = .001 α = .05. V = .452.

The relationship between marital status and personal hindrances affecting the ascent to the presidency was explored. Chi-square analysis determined that the number of

children and whether or not a president had personal hindrances did not have a significant relationship, χ^2 (1, N = 91) = .0471, p = .493. Cross-tabulation results are shown in Table 22. Married presidents responded most frequently that they did not have personal hindrances that affected their presidential ascent (66.7%, n = 38).

Table 22

Personal Hindrances to the Presidency by Marital Status

	Marital Status	
	Married	Not Married
Personal Hindrances	% (n)	% (n)
Had	33.3 (19)	26.5 (9)
Did Not Have	66.7 (38)	73.5 (25)

Note. N = 91. χ^2 (1, N = 91) = .0471, p = .493. α = .05.

Summary of Personal Hindrances Affecting Presidential Ascent

The female presidents in this study of selected independent colleges considered geographical constraints and maternal responsibilities as the personal hindrances that most affected their presidential ascent. No significant relationships were found between the presidents' personal hindrances and the number of years served as president, the presidents' current age, or their marital status. However, a significant relationship was found between the presidents' personal hindrances and their number of children.

Research Question 5

This research question addressed institutional barriers hindering the presidents' ascent to the college presidency. Relationships between variables (age, total years as college president, women who enjoyed advantages being president, and women who were asked inappropriate questions during the interview) and presidents who experienced institutional hindrances in their ascent to the college presidency were examined.

Presidents answered which institutional hindrances affected their ascent and if they were asked inappropriate questions during the interview process (Table 23). Two-thirds (66.7%) of the president responded that they did not experience institutional hindrances. However, of the presidents who had experienced institutional hindrances, they responded that exclusion from the "old boy's" network was the greatest institutional hindrance they faced in their presidential ascent (32.3%, n = 20). Respondents could select multiple answers for the question about institutional hindrances. Sixty-two responses were given for this question; 30 (33.0%) of the presidents responded they had experienced at least one of the hindrances.

A majority (78.9%, n = 71) of the female independent college presidents responded that they were not asked inappropriate questions during the interview process because of their gender. Twenty-one percent (n = 19) of the presidents felt that interview questions were inappropriate.

Table 23

Institutional Hindrances to the Presidency

Institutional Hindrances	f	% of Responses	% of Cases
Assignment of "housekeeping" duties because of gender	2	3.2	6.7
Discouraged from applying because of gender	5	8.1	16.7
Information was withheld because of gender	6	9.7	20.0
Prejudice in hiring because the candidate was female	13	21.0	43.3
Institutional politics	16	25.8	53.3
Exclusion from the "Old Boy's" network	20	32.3	66.7

Note. N = 62 for responses, N = 30 for cases.

The female presidents participating in this study were asked supplemental questions relative to institutional hindrances. Presidents were asked to report the female membership of their governing board. The respondents were asked if they believed in the "asexual presidency," which states that "once you assume the presidency, the assessment of your performance is asexual and not influenced by the fact that you are female" (Vaughan, 1989, p. 83). Thirty-nine percent (n = 35) responded it was true, and an almost equal number (34.6%, n = 31) believed it was not true. Twenty-three (25.8%) were unsure.

The relationship between institutional hindrances and the number of years served as a college president was explored. Chi-square analysis showed no significant relationship between the two variables, χ^2 (2, N = 90) = 5.067, p = .079, as shown in

Table 24. Two-thirds of the presidents responded that no institutional hindrances existed (66.7%, n = 60) for all categories of number of years served as president.

Table 24

Institutional Hindrances to the Presidency by Number of Years as President

	Years as a College President		
	5 Years or Less	6-10 Years	11 Years or more
Institutional Hindrances	% (n)	% (n)	% (n)
Had	37.8 (17)	40.7 (11)	11.1 (2)
Did not have	62.2 (28)	59.3 (16)	88.9 (16)

Note. N = 91, with 1 non-response. M = 7.0 years. χ^2 (2, N = 90) = 5.067, p = .079. α = .05.

Further analysis was performed to determine if there were significant relationships between presidents who experienced institutional hindrances and the presidents' age, whether or not the presidents enjoyed advantages of being a female president, and whether or not the presidents were asked inappropriate questions during the interview process. A cross-tabulation was done between the presidents' age and whether or not the presidents experienced institutional hindrances (Table 25). Chi-square analysis showed no significant relationship, χ^2 (2, N = 90) =2.294, p = .318. Presidents between the ages of 50-59 years old had the highest frequency of responses. Almost three-fourths of the presidents in that age group (63.0%, n = 34) did not experience institutional hindrances affecting their ascent to the presidency.

The cross-tabulation of whether or not the president was asked inappropriate questions during the interview process and institutional hindrances the presidents experienced was performed. Chi-square analysis showed no significant relationship between these variables, χ^2 (1, N = 90) = 2.135, p = .014. More than two-thirds (70.4%, n = 50) of the presidents who felt that they had not been asked inappropriate questions during the interview process did not feel that they had experienced institutional hindrances.

Table 25

Institutional Hindrances to the Presidency by Current Age

Institutional Hindrances	Current Age		
	Under 50 years	50 - 59 years	60 years or older
	% (n)	% (n)	% (n)
Had	15.4 (2)	37.0 (20)	30.4 (7)
Did not have	84.6 (11)	63.0 (34)	69.6 (16)

Note. N = 91, with 1 non-response. M = 55.6 years old. χ^2 (2, N = 90) =2.294, p = .318.

Summary of Institutional Hindrances Affecting Presidential Ascent

Almost two-thirds of the female presidents of selected independent college experienced institutional hindrances that affected their ascent to the presidency. Of these institutional hindrances, exclusion from the "old boy's" network was the most common response. Institutional politics and prejudice in hiring because the candidate was female were two other frequent responses. More than three-fourths of the presidents felt they

were not asked inappropriate questions during the interview process because of their gender. No statistically significant relationship was found between presidents experiencing institutional hindrances and the number of years served as a college president, presidents' current age, or inappropriate questions asked during the interview process.

Research Question 6

This question addressed whether the presidents enjoyed advantages as female college presidents. Relationships between variables (age and total years as college presidents) and presidents who enjoyed advantages as college presidents were examined.

The female college presidents asked about their perceived advantages as presidents because of their gender (Table 26). The most frequent response was that people confided in them more readily and found them more approachable because they were female.

Further analysis was performed to determine if there was a relationship between the number of years served as president and the advantages of gender in the presidency. Chi-square analysis revealed no significant relationship between the number of years served as president and the advantages of being a female president, χ^2 (2, $\underline{N}$ = 90) = 2.872, $\underline{p}$ = .238. The female presidents who most enjoyed the advantages, based on the frequency of responses, were those who have served as president for 5 or fewer years (55.6%, $\underline{n}$ = 25).

Table 26

Perceived Advantages of Being a Female President

Advantages	f	% of Responses	% of Cases
People confide in them more readily because they are more approachable	31	50.0	72.1
Not being perceived as a threat to men	12	19.4	27.9
Not having to be as authoritarian with male colleges	12	19.4	27.9
Other	7	11.3	16.3

Note. Total responses = 62, total cases = 43.

Additional analysis was done to determine if a relationship existed between the presidents' current age and whether or not they enjoyed advantage because of their gender. To determine if a statistically significant relationship existed among those variables, chi-square analysis was performed and no significant relationships existed, χ^2 (2, N = 90) = 1.679, p = .432. Based on cross-tabulation of these variables, the responses for all age groups were nearly equal (52.2%, n = 47) for presidents who enjoyed advantages of gender and those who did not (47.8%, n = 43).

Summary of Advantages of Being a Female President

The advantage most frequently enjoyed by the female presidents was that people confided in them more readily because they were more approachable. No significant relationship was found between the presidents enjoying advantages of being a female

president and the number of years served as president or between the presidents enjoying advantages of being a female president and presidents' current age.

Research Question 7

This question compared the profile of female college presidents of independent colleges in this study to the profile of female college presidents of community colleges from Buddemeier's (1998) study. The areas compared were degrees held, age, marital status, race/ethnicity, professional development, number of children, and prior presidencies (Table 27).

Table 27

Comparison of Demographic and Other Variables for Female Community College (Buddemeier) and Independent College Presidents (Brown)

Variable	Buddemeier's Study % (n)	Brown's Study % (n)
Age[a]		
Under 50	29.9 (38)	14.4 (13)
50-59	61.4 (78)	58.9 (53)
60 and over	8.7 (11)	26.7 (24)
Race/Ethnicity		
Caucasian, non-Hispanic	72.2 (91)	95.6 (87)
African American	15.9 (20)	4.4 (4)
Hispanic/Latina	7.9 (10)	--
Asian American/Pacific Islander	1.6 (2)	--
American Indian/Native	0.08 (1)	--
Other	1.6 (2)	--
Marital Status		
Married	62.2 (79)	62.6 (57)
Divorced/Separated	26.0 (33)	11.0 (10)
Widowed–not remarried	4.7 (6)	2.2 (2)
Single–never married	5.5 (7)	24.2 (22)
Other	1.6 (2)	--

Variable	Buddemeier's Study % (n)	Brown's Study % (n)
Number of Children		
0	28.8 (36)	29.6 (24)
1	28.0 (35)	12.3 (10)
2	31.2 (39)	34.6 (28)
3	8.0 (10)	18.5 (15)
4	1.6 (2)	1.2 (1)
5	1.6 (2)	1.2 (1)
6	--	--
7	.8 (1)	2.5 (2)
Highest Educational Level		
Ph.D.	54.0 (68)	66.6 (60)
Ed.D.	36.5 (46)	17.8 (16)
Professional Degree (MD, JD, DDS)	1.6 (2)	6.7 (6)
Master's	7.1 (9)	5.6 (5)
Bachelor's	--	1.1 (1)
Other	.08 (1)	2.2 (2)
Number of College Presidencies[b]		
1	69.5 (89)	93.4 (85)
2	24.2 (31)	6.6 (6)
3	6.3 (8)	--
Professional Development		
Attended continuing professional development programs	67.7 (84)	71.9 (64)
Personal Hindrances		
Experienced	31.7 (40)	31.8 (28)
Institutional Hindrances		
Experienced (Sexual Discrimination)	80.5 (103)	36.4 (32)
Traditional Career Path		
Followed	26.6 (34)	12.% (11)
Age Upon Assuming First Presidency[c]		
Under 40 years old	17.5 (22)	4.4 (4)
40 to 49 years old	53.2 (67)	47.8 (43)
50 years or older	29.4 (37)	47.8 (43)

[a] M = 52.1 years in Buddemeier, M = 55.6 in Brown. [b] M = 1.4 presidencies in Buddemeier, M = 1.0 in Brown. [c] M = 45.7 years in Buddemeier, M = 48.8 in Brown.

Demographic Characteristics

Figure 4 depicts the percentages of the presidents' ages for both the community colleges and independent colleges, and Table 28 reflects the results of chi-square analysis of the presidents' current age in both studies, χ^2 (2, N = 218) = 14.116, p = .001. Statistical evidence exists to support that the age composition of community college and independent college presidents are not the same.

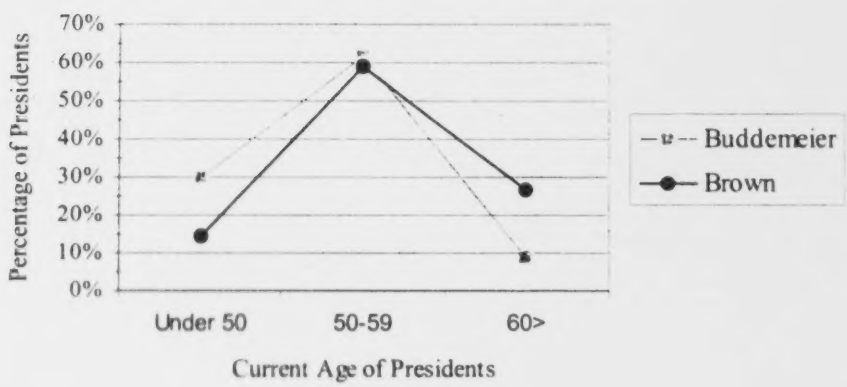

Figure 4. Comparison of the ages of community college and independent college presidents. Brown, N = 91, M = 55.6 years; Buddemeier, N = 128, with 2 non-responses, M = 52.1 years.

Table 28

Current Age for Presidents of Community and Independent Colleges

	Current Age		
	Under 50 Years	50-59 Years	60 Years or Older
Study	% (n)	% (n)	% (n)
Brown	15.0 (14)	59.0 (54)	25.0 (23)
Buddemeier	29.9 (38)	61.4 (78)	8.7 (11)

Note. Brown, N = 91, M = 55.6 years; Buddemeier, N = 128, with 2 non-responses, M = 52.1 years.

A cross-tabulation and chi square analysis showed there is statistical evidence to support that the populations are not the same with respect to race/ethnicity between community and independent college presidents, χ^2 (1, N = 217) = 19.596, p = .001 (Table 29). Most presidents of the community colleges (Buddemeier, 1998) and the independent college presidents in this study were Caucasian 72.2% (91) and 95.6% (87), respectively. African-Americans constituted 15.0% (20) of the community college presidents and 4.4% (4) of the independent college presidents. The community colleges had presidents who were Hispanic/Latina, Asian-American/Pacific Islander, American Indian/Native; the independent colleges did not (Table 29).

Table 29

Race/Ethnicity Between Community and Independent College Presidents

	Race/ Ethnicity	
	Caucasian	Non-Caucasian
Study	% (n)	% (n)
Brown	95.6 (87)	4.4 (4)
Buddemeier	72.2 (91)	27.8 (35)

Note. Brown, N = 91, Buddemeier, N = 128, with 2 non-responses, χ^2 (1, N = 217) = 19.596, p = .001.

A chi-square analysis revealed no statistical evidence to support the conclusion that the populations differed for the marital status of female presidents, χ^2 (1, N = 218) = .004, p = .949. However, statistical evidence exists that community college and independent college presidents were not the same regarding the number of children they had, χ^2 (3, N = 206) = 9.606, p = .022, as shown in Table 30. In both studies, most presidents reported that they were married (62.2% in Buddemeier; 62.6% in this study). In contrast, 5.5% of the community college presidents in the Buddemeier study (1998) and 24.2% of the independent college presidents were single. More community college presidents (33%) were divorced or separated compared to 11% of the independent college president. Seventy percent of the community college presidents in the Buddemeier study (1998) and independent college presidents had at least one child.

Table 30

Number of Children of Community and Independent College Presidents

	Number of Children % (n)			
	0	1	2	3 or more
Brown	40.0 (24)	22.2 (10)	41.8 (28)	55.9 (19)
Buddemeier	60.0 (36)	77.8 (35)	58.2 (39)	44.1 (15)

Note. Brown, N = 91, with 10 non-responses; Buddemeier, N = 128, with 3 non-responses. χ^2 (3, N = 206) = 9.606, p = .022.

As shown in Figure 5, the independent college presidents had a larger percentage of Ph.D. degrees (66.6%, n = 60) than did the community college presidents (54.0%, n = 68). Community college presidents (Buddemeier, 1998) had a higher percentage of Ed.D. degrees (36.5%, n = 46) than did the independent college presidents (17.8%, n=16). The independent college presidents reported only one (1.1%) president with a bachelor's degree.

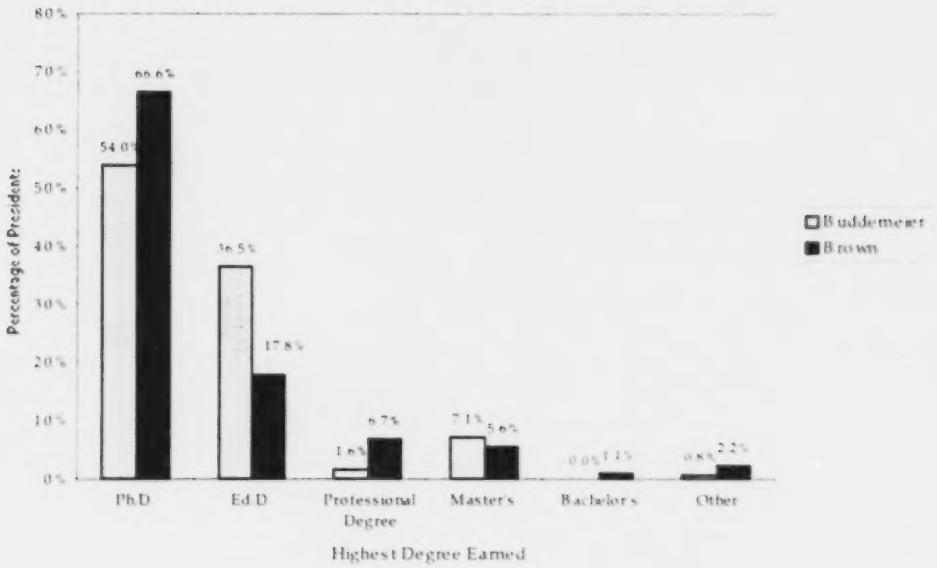

Figure 5. Highest educational levels of community college and independent college presidents. Brown, N = 91, with 1 non-response; Buddemeier, N = 129, with 2 non-responses.

A large percentage of the respondents in both studies were in their first presidency. Cross-tabulation and chi-square analysis (Table 31) showed there is statistical evidence that community college and independent college presidents are not the same with respect to the number of presidencies held, χ^2 (1, N = 219) = 18.571, p = .001. Independent college presidents had a larger percentage (93.4%, n = 85, M = 1.07) of presidents in their first presidency as compared to community college presidents (69.5%, n = 89, M = 1.4) in Buddemeier's (1988) study. None of the presidents in this study were in their third presidency as compared to 6.3% (n = 8) of the community college presidents.

Table 31

Number of Presidencies of Community and Independent College Presidents

	Number of Presidencies	
	1	2 or More
	% (n)	% (n)
Brown	48.9 (85)	13.3 (6)
Buddemeier	51.1 (89)	86.7 (39)

Note. Brown, N = 91, M = 1.0 presidencies; Buddemeier, N = 128, M = 1.4 presidencies. χ^2 (1, N = 219) = 18.571, p = .001.

Three-fourths of the female community college presidents in Buddemeier's study (1998) responded that they had a mentor who helped them move up the administrative career ladder compared to slightly more than half (56.0%) the independent college presidents. The presidents of both the community colleges (52.2%) and independent colleges (53.0%) had almost identical percentages regarding receiving direct assistance from their mentors as they moved up the administrative ladder.

Most mentors for female community college (59.2%) and independent college (68.6%) presidents were male. Female independent college presidents (31.4%) had a higher percentage of presidents who responded that their mentor was female than did the community college presidents (6.8%).

The traditional career path for college presidents is that of entering the field of higher education as a faculty member, then advancing through the ranks to division chair

and chief academic officer before becoming president. The majority of female community college presidents (66.4%, n = 85) and independent college presidents (70.3%, n = 64) began their careers in higher education as faculty members. None of the female independent college presidents responded that she entered the field of higher education in continuing education as compared to 6.3% (n = 8) of community college presidents.

The position prior to becoming a college president following the traditional career path was chief academic officer. Table 32 shows results of comparing female community college and independent college presidents' positions prior to the presidency. Almost twice as many female community college presidents (60.2%, n = 74) as compared to independent college presidents (33.0%, n = 30) who held the position of chief academic officer. Female community college presidents held more positions in the areas of student affairs (8.2%, n = 10) and campus president/provost (8.2%, n = 10) than did the female independent college presidents in student affairs (4.4%, n = 4) and the campus president/provost (2.2%, n = 2). A larger percentage of female independent college presidents (28.6%) had positions in the "other" area as compared to community college presidents (9.7%).

As stated earlier, a higher percentage of female community college presidents held the position of chief academic officer prior to the presidency. Female community college presidents had a higher percentage of those who held both the faculty member and chief academic officer positions (43.8%, n = 56) than did the female independent college presidents (27.5%, n = 25). Thirty-four (26.6%) community college presidents

held all positions in the traditional career path compared to 11 (12.1%) of independent college presidents as shown in Figure 6.

Table 32

Female Community and Independent College Presidents' Positions Prior to the Presidency

Position	Buddemeier	Brown
Chief academic officer	60.2%	33.0%
Student affairs	8.2%	4.4%
Campus president/provost	8.2%	2.2%
Other vice presidents/dean	13.9%	31.8%
Other	9.7%	28.6%

Note. Brown, N = 91, Buddemeier, N = 128.

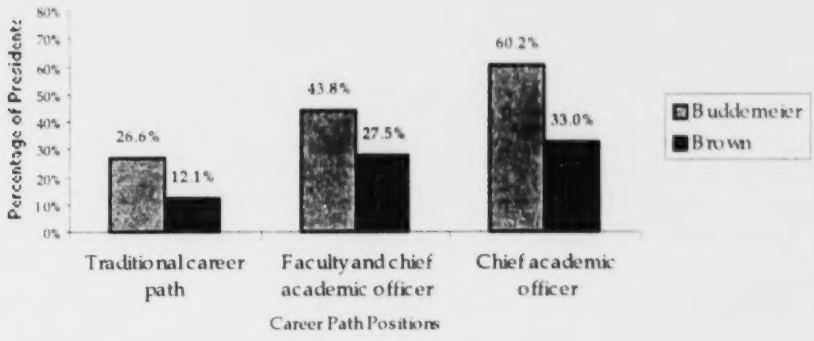

Figure 6. Comparison of female community and independent college presidents' career path positions. Note. Brown, N = 91, Buddemeier, N = 128.

Summary of Comparison Between Female Presidents of Community Colleges and Selected Independent Colleges

The average age of female presidents of selected independent colleges was slightly higher than for female presidents of the community colleges. Most presidents in both studies were Caucasians, but community colleges had more racial and ethnic diversity. In both studies, many presidents were married and had at least one child. More female presidents of selected independent colleges had Ph.D. degrees as compared to the community college presidents who had more Ed.D. degrees. The presidents, for the most part, were in their first presidency, but some community college presidents had held three presidencies.

Female presidents of selected independent colleges had mentors more often than did the community college presidents. In both studies, a majority of the mentors were males. The presidents usually participated in professional development programs. Almost one-third of the presidents in both studies experienced personal hindrances that affected their ascent to the presidency. Community college presidents reported they experienced institutional hindrances and sex discrimination at more than twice the rate that the independent college presidents did.

The majority of presidents from both studies began their higher education careers as faculty members. Community college presidents were almost twice as likely to have been a chief academic officer prior to assuming their first presidency.

Summary

Chapter Four presented the results of the analyses of this study's research questions. Analyses of demographic variables and the relationships among variables were done. Frequency analysis, cross-tabulations, and chi-square analysis were done to analyze the data. The conclusions, implications, and recommendations resulting from this study are discussed in Chapter Five.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this study was to assess the career paths and experiences of female presidents of selected four-year independent colleges. Seven research questions were explored in this study, which was conducted in fall 1999. Descriptive research design and quantitative data collection methods were used. Ninety-one out of 129 female college presidents responded to the 49-item questionnaire. Descriptive statistics, including frequency, mean, cross-tabulation, and chi-square, were used to analyze the data.

Synder and associates (1997) identified 1,636 four-year independent colleges in the United States, and, according to the American Council on Education, Office of Women in Higher Education database (1999), 164 women are serving as presidents of four-year independent colleges. The results from this dissertation can be used by higher education leaders to meet the challenges of increasing the number of female college presidents of four-year independent colleges. These results are generalized only to women interested in appointments as presidents of selected independent colleges.

In this chapter, the research findings and conclusions are presented, followed by implications drawn from the research findings and a review of the literature. The chapter concludes with recommendations for further research.

Conclusions

Conclusion 1: Not all female college presidents of selected independent colleges in this study followed the traditional career path via the positions of faculty member, department head/division chair, and chief academic affairs officer. Half the female college presidents reported their entry-level position in higher education was as faculty members, and more than half of them reported they held administrative positions in academic affairs immediately prior to their first college presidency. However, more than half the female presidents responded that they had not held the position of department/ division chair, and only 33% of female presidents held the position of chief academic officer. These findings support Salimbene's (1982) argument that few college presidents actually follow the traditional career path to the college presidency. Women are taking several different career paths to the college presidency, which supports LeBlanc's (1993) assertion that aspiring women college presidents should actively plan and consider different career paths to the college presidency. From this dissertation's findings regarding traditional career paths to the college presidency, one could surmise that leaders of selected independent colleges and community colleges, as compared to other categories of higher education institutions, are considering wider ranges of administrative and academic experiences when choosing candidates for the college presidency, so that no qualified candidates would be left out. Therefore, the traditional career path to the college presidency is no longer the predominant career path.

Conclusion 2: An all-female college is one resource that provides a foundation that positively influences the advancement of female college presidents. In the current

study, nearly half (44%, n =40) the female college presidents reported attending all-female colleges. These findings are consistent with Touchton and associates' (1993) who reported that nearly 40% (n = 230) of all women presidents in their study, representing public and independent higher education institutions, received a degree from an all-female college. Touchton and associates (1993) described their findings as being "noteworthy" because there is a strong belief within the female academic community that all-female colleges produce a significantly high number of female leaders and achievers.

Conclusion 3: More mentoring opportunities are available for aspiring female college presidents and that mentoring facilitates aspiring female presidents' move up the administrative career ladder. The majority of female college presidents of selected independent colleges reported having more than one mentor assist them in their career development. However, some persons may assert that women can only be mentored by other women. In this study, findings showed that women had more male mentors than they did female mentors, suggesting that men can serve as effective mentors to women and that there is value in being mentored by both genders. Additionally, these findings suggest an increasing emphasis on the need for aspiring female college presidents to have multiple mentors to facilitate their move up the administrative career ladder. Moreover, mentors are more available and willing to play a direct role in assisting aspiring female presidents' advancement up the administrative ladder. Hansman (1998) asserted that involvement in multiple mentoring relationships can determine effectiveness in enhancing career development.

The female presidents had not initiated mentoring relationships with their primary mentors as often as their primary mentors had initiated mentoring relationships with them. These findings indicate that more men perceive women as capable of leading higher education institutions. One female president asserted:

> Whatever mentors I have had, have been male, and they have been helpful and supportive. I find, unfortunately, that (and I attribute this to our being in a time of transition) it has been women, primarily, who have stood in my way, not men. It seems confusing and challenging for some of them to encounter a woman leader.

Findings from this study also indicated the majority of female presidents did not initiate mentoring relationships with their primary mentors, which support findings from a previous study that the initiation of mentoring relationships by women may continue to be difficult (Hansman, 1998). Such problems and complexities included (a) women experiencing difficulties initiating and maintaining mentoring relationships in male-dominated institutions and (b) women perceived as less committed to their careers, thus limiting potential mentors' involvement in mentoring relationships with women.

The majority of female presidents who had mentors also served as mentors to both women and men, with a larger percentage of those mentees being women. This result suggests female college presidents recognize the benefits of mentorship, and they feel they have a responsibility to mentor others, especially women. These findings may further suggest that these female presidents are concerned for the status of women and view themselves as advocates for the women they mentor.

Conclusion 4: National professional education programs contribute to the career advancement of aspiring female college presidents. Professional development programs identified in the survey focused primarily on leadership development and management. Several of the programs offered training only to women who were interested in leading higher education institutions and provided training to women who were interested in advancing their administrative careers. Other programs were designed for both men and women who were interested in developing their managerial and leadership skills.

The majority of female college presidents indicated they participated in at least one of the professional development programs listed on the survey. A number of female presidents (18.5%) reported they participated in other professional development programs, but those programs did not have a national reputation. According to the respondents, the professional development programs primarily assisted them in enhancing their professional skills and provided networking opportunities. The most widely attended professional development programs were Harvard Educational Management Program (40.2%) and the American Council on Education National Identification Program (22.8%). This finding shows that nationally renowned programs tend to be more beneficial to women aspiring to the college presidency. Participants in professional development programs are provided opportunities to focus on developing or modifying leadership behaviors, networking, and goal setting, managerial, and communication skills.

Conclusion 5: Female presidents, early in their careers, did not plan strategically to seek the college presidency. Among women early in their career development, a low

perception of their abilities to lead or that they can acquire the abilities to lead independent four-year higher education institutions may persist and could be one reason why women do not plan strategically to seek the college presidency when they first enter the field of higher education. Another reason may be that women's occupational choices vary as they move through different life stages, lending support to DauffenBach's (1980) contention that occupational choices are a lifelong process of decision making at different psychological life stages. The finding that female college presidents made it a goal to pursue the college presidency only as they moved up the administrative career ladder or because it was the next step on the administrative ladder is consistent with Touchton and associates' (1993) study, in which approximately half the female college presidents' goal of becoming a college president evolved as they advanced in their careers. As the numbers of female college presidents increase, the concept of a woman leading higher education institutions should become the norm rather than the exception and should help women earlier in their careers to visualize themselves becoming college presidents.

Conclusion 6: Female college presidents are more likely to be contacted by search firms and selection committees prior to their appointments to the college presidency. Women, interested in the college presidency, should consider acquiring the credentials desired by search firms and selection committees. Almost 1 in 3 female college presidents was contacted by a search firm prior to her appointment to the college presidency. This finding is higher than the 1 in 20 reported in Touchton and associates' (1993) study of female college presidents who were contacted by a search firm.

Conclusion 7: Some aspiring female college presidents continue to experience challenges in coping with personal hindrances and institutional hindrances during their ascension to the college presidency. In this study, 31.8% of female presidents of selected four-year independent colleges reported experiencing personal hindrances, and 36.4% reported experiencing institutional hindrances. Geographical constraints and maternal responsibilities were the most frequent personal hindrances reported. These findings support those from Rosenfeld and Jones (1987) who found that women view geographic mobility as a barrier to advancement in academia. With respect to geographic mobility, these findings have two implications for aspiring female presidents and independent colleges. First, women may have to be more creative in how to make their personal lives, careers, and social lives fit together. Two of the respondents in this study reported that they have commuter relationships with their spouses, and they see each other only on the weekends. Second, independent college leaders may have to be more creative and proactive in developing solutions to attract aspiring female presidents to their institutions. Some examples include providing employment services for spouses, hiring spouses within their institutions, and providing information on area school systems for children and elder care. Findings from this study demonstrate a move by independent colleges to hire spouses. Almost 22% of full-time spouses were employed by the independent colleges in which their wives served as presidents.

Institutional politics and exclusion from the "old boy's" network were the most frequent institutional hindrances reported in this study. Slightly more than 36% percent of the respondents indicated they had experienced institutional hindrances, and slightly more

than 32% of the respondents experienced exclusion from the old boy's network. In Stokes' (1984) study focusing on the old boy's network, 87% of the administrators reported they were excluded from the old boy's network, which is a larger percentage than found in the present study. In comparison to a decade ago, the numbers of aspiring female college presidents experiencing exclusion from the old boy's network are decreasing, which may indicate that men are beginning to accept women as valuable contributors to their network.

In this study, the percentage of female presidents noting they had experienced personal and institutional hindrances was lower than in previous studies. Lower percentages of personal and institutional hindrances found in this study suggest that those in higher education are more supportive of and sensitive to the promotion and hiring of women in leadership positions of selected independent higher education institutions. Of the women who had experienced personal and institutional hindrances, one respondent reported encountering several situations that were discriminatory toward women, and another president reported being informed during an interview by trustees that she was too young to be a president (she was in her 40s). Women must continue developing solutions to counteract personal and institutional hindrances. Aspiring female college presidents would benefit by networking with women to determine what strategies are and not working to break the cycle of institutional politics and exclusion from the old boy's network exclusion. Strategies that are not working need to be discontinued and replaced with new and innovative ideas. Results from this study also showed that women can benefit by networking with men.

Conclusion 8: Female presidents of both selected four-year independent colleges and of community colleges are similar in that they tend not to follow the traditional career path to the college presidency. The current study and Buddemeir's (1998) study were conducted approximately 2 years apart. Findings from the two studies suggest similarities and differences between female presidents of selected independent colleges and female presidents of community colleges. Regarding traditional career paths, fewer than half the female presidents of selected independent colleges and fewer than half the female presidents of community colleges followed the traditional career path of faculty member, department/division chair and chief academic officer. These findings suggest that both the selected independent colleges targeted in this study and the community colleges in Buddemeir's (1998) study had flexible hierarchies.

Regarding educational background, the same proportion of female presidents of independent colleges as female presidents of community colleges attained doctoral degrees, but their doctorates were in different academic fields. A higher percentage of female presidents of independent colleges (67%) compared to female presidents of community colleges (54%) had earned their Ph.Ds. A higher percentage of female community college presidents (36.5%) compared to female presidents of independent colleges (17%) had earned their Ed.Ds. These findings are consistent with previous studies that the doctorate is a valuable credential for aspiring female college presidents.

Over half the female presidents from both independent colleges (71.9%) and community colleges (67.7%) attended professional development programs that assisted them in their career development. These findings suggest presidents perceive

participation in professional development programs enhances their preparation for the college presidency.

Previous studies (Touchton, Shavlik, & Davis, 1993; Ross & Green, 1998) suggest that four-year independent colleges and community colleges in comparison to other categories of higher education institutions take the lead in appointing the largest number of female college presidents. Despite leaders of these two categories of higher education institutions taking the lead in appointing female presidents, the findings from the current study compared to Buddemeier's (1998) findings suggest differences in the profile of appointed female presidents of selected four-year independent colleges and female presidents of community colleges. The profiles of these female college presidents do not contribute to selected four-year independent colleges and community colleges taking the lead in appointing female presidents. Findings do indicate that women experienced limited personal hindrances, which may suggest that independent colleges and community colleges provide more institutional support in helping aspiring female presidents handle potential personal hindrances, assuming the majority of their career lives were spent in these institutions. Moreover, both independent and community college female presidents did not follow the traditional career path, suggesting that both categories of institutions are open to considering different variations in administrative and academic experiences. Leaders of these institutions recognize that they cannot ignore the different career paths women can take to the college presidency. This recognition of women's varied experiences may be one reason that leaders of independent and

community colleges are taking the lead in appointing female college presidents, a welcome trend for aspiring female college presidents.

Although a new paradigm in the career path to the college presidency is emerging, this study's findings do not reveal it. Despite this study's lack of support, the emerging paradigm is enabling institutions to redefine what administrative and academic experiences will prepare individuals for the college presidency and provide more opportunities for aspiring female college presidents.

Aspiring female college presidents should not feel they have limited themselves if they are not in the academic pipeline. However, aspiring female college presidents should gain academic experience and serve as faculty or in instructional roles, because this study's findings revealed that slightly more 70% of the female college presidents served as faculty members. If aspiring female college presidents do not choose traditional paths to the college presidency, they may consider preparing themselves to serve in academic settings in mid-management positions.

According to respondents' comments on the survey and data from this study, serving in various capacities of leadership positions from within and outside the college enhances qualifications for the presidency. Examples of capacities from within the college include accruing leadership responsibilities in one's area and outside one's area (i.e., development, business affairs, academic affairs, etc.), chairing various types of campus-wide committees, and creating new administrative responsibilities for oneself. Examples of capacities outside the college include serving on regional or national academic accrediting bodies; making scholarly presentations at academic conferences;

publishing; participating on boards, in leadership activities in professional, national, and civic organizations, and in professional development programs in the form of leadership training. Serving in various capacities of leadership can help aspiring female college presidents gain regional and national recognition and can increase their visibility.

Conclusion 9: Limited numbers of ethnic minority women are represented among female college presidents of selected four-year independent colleges and community colleges. Findings indicated that 4.4% of ethnic minority women comprised independent college presidents, and 25.5% of ethnic minority women comprised community college presidents. These findings suggest an underrepresentation of ethnic minority female college presidents of selected four-year independent colleges and community colleges. Although higher education institutions are making strides in hiring female community college presidents, more effort is needed to increase ethnic minority women's representation as presidents of independent and community colleges.

Ethnic minority women who are interested in serving as college presidents should adopt similar strategic planning as proposed for aspiring majority female college presidents. For example, ethnic minority women might consider having multiple mentors who can influence their career development by providing guidance, resources, and sponsorship and who can help pave their way to the college presidency. Participation in national professional development programs and in both networking and leadership opportunities are important for preparing one for the college presidency.

Leaders of higher education institutions and professional development programs should consider developing mentoring programs targeted to ethnic minority women. In

developing such programs, educational leaders should recognize that the backgrounds and experiences of ethnic minority women may differ from those of Caucasian women who are aspiring to the college presidency. By creating culturally sensitive programming, educational and professional development leaders can meet the needs and concerns of ethnic minority women and increase their representation in the college presidency.

Recommendations for Further Research

More research of the types of mentoring relationships female college presidents have with mentors who assist them in their move up the administrative ladder is needed. Of interest would be what kinds of mentoring activities occur and whether their relationships with mentors are formal or informal and whether the mentoring was career related or social.

Additional information about the training and experiences female presidents receive in preparation for the college presidency would be helpful to colleges and to women aspiring to the college presidency. Those training and experiences may include scholarly and professional membership activities, administrative experiences, and state and national activities.

Findings from this study showed that women did face personal and institutional barriers. More research of the kinds of strategies academic administrators are doing to overcome hindrances, such as the "old boy's" network, institutional politics, and prejudice in hiring women, would be useful. Further investigation of how female presidents deal with hindrances they encounter in ascending to the presidency, such as geographical constraints, marital, and maternal responsibilities, is needed.

Because the majority of female college presidents in this study did not follow traditional career paths, further exploration is needed to determine what other career paths female presidents are following and if there are any themes. Perhaps, one might ask whether the traditional career path continues to exist. The approach of studying women's ascension to the college presidency in relation to their career paths and positions held may need to be reexamined. Is it necessary for aspiring female college presidents to follow a career path? Is the examination of the types of administrative experiences, mentorship, scholarly activities, professional development activities, and professional association activities that women were involved during their ascension to the college presidency more important than the examination of positions held?

Further investigation of where women are serving as college presidents and the number of women serving as administrators, faculty members, student officers of student organizations and trustees may reveal if women are well represented throughout the campus and if there is any relationship between the representation of women throughout the campus and the appointment of female college presidents. Also, of interest may be which roles campus women (administrators, faculties, trustees, students) play during the presidential search.

To address the shortage of ethnic minority female presidents, researchers may ask if there are ethnic minority women who aspire to become female college presidents. If not, why? How are aspiring ethnic minority female college presidents preparing for the college presidency in relation to education, mentorship, professional development, scholarly activities, and administrative experiences. Are college leaders supporting the

recruitment of ethnic minority female presidents? If so, what kind of recruitment activities are being implemented and are these activities working?

Further research is needed to learn what credentials that search firms desire most in searching for potential college president candidates. Are women being identified by search firms? Are ethnic minority women being identified? How are these women being identified? What happens when college administrators or trustees do not demonstrate interest in identifying and selecting women and ethnic minority female candidates? Does the search firm succumb to the college leaders' desires or does the search firm educate the college leaders on the positive influence diversity can have on an institution?

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

LETTERS & POSTCARDS

Cover Letter: Mailing #1

Date
President's Name
President's Institution
Institution's Address

Dear_____:

I am a doctoral candidate specializing in Higher Education Administration at North Carolina State University. I am writing a dissertation on the career paths of women college presidents of independent colleges.

Only recently has the number of women college presidents begun to increase. Women continue to be under-represented in presidential positions.

The data collected from this study will add greatly to the growing body of literature on the college and university presidency and may contribute to the success of women aspiring to become college presidents.

I would appreciate it very much if you would participate in this nationwide study of women college presidents of independent colleges. Full confidentiality will be maintained. No reference will be made to you or specific connections drawn to your institution. Please take ten minutes to complete the enclosed survey and return it to me in the enclosed self-addressed stamped envelope. Also enclosed is a self-addressed stamped postcard to notify me that you have completed the survey, which you should mail separately.

I realize that this is a very busy time in your academic year and that your time is valuable. However, this survey will only take **10 minutes.** Please return this survey by **December 15, 1999.**

Thank you in advance for your willingness to participate in this study.

Sincerely,

Terri M. Brown

Enclosures

Confidentiality Postcard

Dear College President:

Please mail this postcard separately. This will notify me that you have completed the survey entitled **WOMEN COLLEGE PRESIDENTS OF INDEPENDENT COLLEGES: CAREER PATHS, PROFILES, AND EXPERIENCES.**

Again, thank you for completing this survey.

Terri Brown

Code #

Postcard Reminder: Mailing #2

Dear _____:

Recently you received survey entitled **WOMEN COLLEGE PRESIDENTS OF INDEPENDENT COLLEGES: CAREER PATHS, PROFILES, AND EXPERIENCES.** If you have already completed and mailed your survey, thank you. However, if you have not, would you please complete this survey and mail it to me by December 15,1999. It will only take 10 minutes of your valuable time

Again, thank you for completing this survey.

Terri Brown

Cover Letter: Mailing #3

Date

President's Name
Institution's Name
Institution's Address

Dear_____:

Recently, you received a letter from me asking you to participate in a nationwide study of women presidents of independent colleges. As of today, I have not received your completed questionnaire. If you have already mailed your questionnaire, please disregard this letter.

I realize that this is a very busy time of the year, however I am writing you again to ask you to please devote **10 minutes** of your time to completing this brief questionnaire. Your responses are extremely important to this study. Please return the survey to me by January 20, 2000.

For your convenience, another questionnaire is enclosed along with a self-addressed, stamped envelope. Also enclosed is a self-addressed stamped postcard to notify me that you have completed the survey, which you should mail separately.

Your cooperation will be greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Terri Brown

Enclosures

APPENDIX B

SURVEY

WOMEN COLLEGE PRESIDENTS OF INDEPENDENT COLLEGES: CAREER PATHS, PROFILES, AND EXPERIENCES SURVEY

This questionnaire will take approximately 10 minutes to complete. Depending on the question, you will be asked to respond in one of the following ways:

- **By circling the number in front of the answer that best describes your response (unless otherwise directed, you should circle only one response for each question);**
- **By filling in a number in a blank space; or**
- **By writing out an answer in your own words.**

Please complete and return the questionnaire in the enclosed self-addressed envelope to Terri Brown, School of Education; Campbell University; P.O. Box 369; Buies Creek, NC 27506. If you have any questions, contact Ms. Brown at (910) 893-1650. **All responses will be kept confidential.**

I. CAREER PATH

1. Position held prior to your first presidency:
   1 Assistant to the President
   2 Vice President
   3 Assist./Assoc. Vice President
   4 Dean
   5 Assist/Assoc. Dean
   6 Other (specify): _____

2. Area of position held prior to your first presidency:
   1 Academic Affairs
   2 Student Affairs
   3 Business/Financial Affairs
   4 Continuing Education
   5 Campus President/Provost
   6 Other (specify): _____

3. What was your entry-level position in higher education?
   1 Faculty Member
   2 Coordinator
   3 Director
   4 Department Head/Chair
   5 Other (specify): _____

4. Area of your entry-level position in higher education:
   1 Academics
   2 Student Affairs
   3 Business/Financial Affairs
   4 Office of Development
   5 Other (specify): _____

5. Have you ever held the position of department/division* chair? 1 Yes 2 No

*For the purpose of this study, a department/division chair is defined as an administrator who may teach, has responsibility for more than one program or discipline, and evaluates faculty.

II. MENTORSHIP

6. Did you have a primary mentor who played a role in assisting your move up the administrative ladder?
   1 Yes (Answer question 7)
   2 No (Skip to question 11)

7. If yes, how?
   1 Directly (Served as your advocate; arranged an interview for you)
   2 Indirectly (Provided support only)

8. Was your primary mentor: 1 Male 2 Female

9. Who was your primary mentor?
   1 College President
   2 College Senior Administrator
   3 Faculty Member
   4 Friend
   5 Relative
   6 Other (specify): _____

10. How was your relationship formed with your primary mentor?
    1 You actively sought your mentor
    2 Your mentor actively sought you

11. How many mentors did you have?
    1 one 3 three 5 more than five
    2 two 4 four

12. Are you currently a mentor for someone else?
    1 Yes (Answer question 13)
    2 No (Skip to question 14)

13. Is your mentee: 1 Male 2 Female 3 both male and female mentees

III. PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

14. Which continuing professional education programs assisted in your career development or in attaining your current position? (Circle all that apply)
    1 Harvard Educational Management Programs
    2 American Council on Education Fellows Program
    3 American Council on Education National Identification Program
    4 Bryn Mawr College/Higher Education Resources Services (HERS)
    5 State Sponsored Programs
    6 Other (Specify): _____
    7 N/A

15. How did participation in professional development programs relate to your career advancement? (Circle all that apply)
    1 Enhanced professional skills
    2 Provided networking opportunities
    3 Enhanced self-esteem
    4 Enhanced desire to seek the presidency
    5 None of the above

IV. EVENTS AFFECTING CAREER PATH

16. What attracted you to the presidency? (Circle only one)
    1 It has been your goal since entering the field of higher education
    2 It became your goal as you moved up the administrative ladder
    3 Your mentor encouraged you to consider the presidency as a career choice
    4 It was the next step on the administrative ladder but was never a specific goal of yours
    5 None of the above

17. How did you become a candidate for your current position? (Circle only one)
    1 Was contacted by search firm
    2 Applied without previous nomination
    3 Was nominated and accepted nomination
    4 Served first in an "acting" capacity
    5 Was encouraged by a member of the institution
    6 Was contacted by a member of the search committee
    7 None of the above

18. Which of the following advantages do you feel you enjoy in the role of president because you are female? (Circle all that apply)
    1 Not being perceived as a threat to men because you are female
    2 Not having to be as authoritarian with male colleagues because you are female
    3 People confide in you more readily and find you more approachable because you are female
    4 Other (specify): _____
    5 None of the above

19. Which of the following personal events hindered your ascent to the presidency? (Circle all that apply)
    1 Marital responsibilities
    2 Maternal responsibilities
    3 Constrained geographically by spouse or other family member
    4 Other family responsibilities
    5 Late start in career
    6 Other (specify): _____
    7 None of the above

20. Which of the following hindered your ascent to the presidency? (Circle all that apply)
    1 Prejudice in hiring because you are a woman
    2 Assigned "housekeeping" duties (i.e., planning luncheons) because you are a woman
    3 Excluded from the old boy's network
    4 Information withheld from you because you are a woman
    5 Institutional politics
    6 Discouraged from applying for administrative positions because you are a woman
    7 None of the above

21. In interviewing for the college presidency (at any institution), were you ever asked a question you feel was inappropriate and was asked because you are a woman?
    1 Yes
    2 No

22. What percentage of governing board members at your institution comprised women when you were selected president?
    1 less than 10%
    2 10-19%
    3 20-29%
    4 30-39%
    5 40-49%
    6 50-59%
    7 60% or more

23. Do you believe that Vaughan's (1989) perception of the "asexual" presidency* is true at your institution?
    1 Yes 2 No 3 Not sure

*Once you assume the presidency, the assessment of your performance is asexual and not influenced by the fact that you are female. Vaughan, G. B. (1989). Leadership in transition. New York: Macmillan, p. 83.

V. EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND

24. Check the highest educational level you have attained.
    1 Bachelor's
    2 Master's
    3 Ph.D.
    4 Ed.D.
    5 Professional Degree (MD, JD, DDS)
    6 Other (specify): _____

25. If you hold the doctorate, what is your major field of study?
    1 Education
    2 Humanities/Fine Arts
    3 Religion/Theology
    4 Physical/Natural Sciences
    5 Social Sciences
    6 Law
    7 Other (specify): _____
    8 N/A

26. How many years passed between obtaining your highest degree and your appointment to the presidency? _____

27. Have you ever attended a women's college?
    1 Yes (Answer Questions 28 & 29)
    2 No (skip to question 30)

28. If yes, which of the following did you earn from a women's college? (Circle all that apply).
    1 Associate's degree
    2 Bachelor's degree
    3 Master's degree
    4 Ed.D.
    5 Ph.D.
    6 Professional degree (MD, JD,DDS)
    7 No degree

29. In what way do you believe attending a women's college influenced your career path:
    1 Positive influence 2 Somewhat positive influence
    3 No influence 4 Somewhat negative influence
    5 Negative influence 6 No opinion

VI. PROFESSIONAL BACKGROUND

30. Number of years in your current position : _____

31. Total number of years you have been a college president : _____

32. Total number of presidencies held (including your current presidency): _____

33. How old were you when you assumed your first presidency? _____

34. If you have held more than one presidency, were you the first female president at the institution where you held your first presidency?
    1 Yes 2 No 3 N/A

35. Were you an internal candidate at the college at which you assumed your first presidency?
    1 Yes 2 No

36. Are you the first female president at your current institution?
    1 Yes 2 No

37. Who is your chief confidant on campus? (Circle only one)
    1 Chief Academic Officer
    2 Chief Business Officer
    3 Chief Student Affairs Officer
    4 Assistant to the President
    5 Other Vice President/Dean
    6 Other (specify): _____
    7 No one (skip to Question 39)

38. Is your chief confidant:
    1 Male 2 Female

VII. DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

39. Current age : _____

40. Race/ethnicity:
    1 Asian/Pacific Islander
    2 African-American
    3 Caucasian
    4 Hispanic/Latino
    5 Native American
    6 Other

41. Current marital status:
    1 Married
    2 Separated
    3 Divorced
    4 Widowed-not remarried
    5 Not married-domestic partnership
    6 Single-never married

42. Is your spouse or partner:
    1 Employed by your institution
    2 Employed by another institution
    3 Self-employed
    4 Not employed
    5 N/A

43. Employment status of your spouse or partner is: 1 Full-time 2 Part-time

44. How many children do you have? _____

VIII. INSTITUTIONAL CHARACTERISTICS

45. Approximately how many students are enrolled in your institution? _____

46. How would you categorize your institution?
    1 Co-educational
    2 Women's college (over 90% women)

47. Is your institution religion-affiliated?
    1 Yes
    2 No

48. How would you classify your institution?
    1 Liberal arts college
    2 Comprehensive college
    3 Doctoral granting

49. Circle your institution's regional accrediting body:
    1 Middle States Association of Colleges and Schools
    2 New England Association of Schools and Colleges
    3 North Central Association of Colleges and Schools
    4 Northwest Association of Schools and Colleges
    5 Southern Association of Colleges and Schools
    6 Western Association of Schools and Colleges
    7 Other (specify): _____

Please write any additional comments or observations in the space provided below:

Thank you for completing this survey